The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

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Changing Aims and Values of Teaching the Social Studies

As disclosed by the files of The Historical Outlook and The History Teacher's Magazine, 1909-1929

BY HUBERT PARK BECK, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Tradition has it that Napoleon pronounced his judgment upon history in words none too complimentary—"History is all lies!" 1 Nor is the name of Napoleon the only famous name associated with a scorn of history; Mr. Henry Ford is widely believed to have declared, "History is bunk!" 2 And if judgment is to be made only from certain pieces of writing which can be included under the term "history" in its widest sense, this deprecation of "history" is righteous.

History, however, has not been unique among the social sciences in receiving harsh criticism of its value. The past several decades have been marked by wide-spread reconsideration of educational values, and as one of the comparatively new additions to the curriculum, the social studies have fallen in for a generous share of scrutiny. The object of this article is to review the changes in aims and values of the social studies in the secondary school over the past twenty years as revealed by discussions in The Historical Outlook, which before October, 1918, was called The History Teacher's Magazine.

An adequate review of the evidence bearing upon the aims and values of the social studies in the secondary school has necessitated a thorough examination of the files of the magazine from the date of founding, September, 1909, to 1929. For the years 1909 to 1925 much reliance has been placed upon the "Aims and Values" list of references in Prof. Richard A. Shyrock's "Guide to Materials in The HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE and THE HISTORICAL Outlook," although the investigator supplemented the material covered by the index with occasional detailed examination of a volume for all references to aims and values of teaching in the social studies. In many cases this investigation has included aims, values, and objectives which were not listed as such, but which were nevertheless obvious from descriptions of procedures, methods, or courses of study. Altogether, seventy-six separate articles touching directly upon the question of aims and values of teaching the social studies were covered by this investigation.

A Typical Early Statement of Aims and Values In the fifth issue of The History Teacher's Magazine, dated January, 1910, Prof. H. M. Bowman raised the issue, "Has History a Practical Value?," pointing out that in the school

The boy is prepared for carrying on research when he expects to carry on business, and the girl is drilled in turning out monographs when she expects to turn out biscuits.4 Prof. Bowman believed that history might be used for reading, studying, teaching, writing, and living, but these uses might certainly be made of every academic study in the high school, and pre-eminently of English. To point out, then, that the study of history has these general values is to contribute but little to the specific aims which the teacher of history should strive to attain, and the need for history in the curriculum is thrown open to question. But, judging from the discussions in the magazine twenty years ago, the position of history in the curriculum was secure, for there was little effort to justify the presence of history and no unique and vital contribution toward the essentials of education were argued or even mentioned.

Today this list of uses of history as given by Prof. Bowman is curiously out of date. Not many persons writing on the study of history in the secondary school at present would refer to its main values as assistance in reading, studying, teaching, writing, and living. With the great change in the pupil population which has taken place in the secondary school over the last two decades, exceedingly few of the pupils now in school will teach after they leave school, only a negligible number will ever do any considerable amount of writing, all too few will continue to study, and the kind of reading that most pupils will do after they leave school will scarcely be enriched or aided by the study of history in the secondary school.

In this article published twenty years ago, Prof. Bowman enumerates some other values, however, which are more nearly in accord with recent discussions of aims and values. He says that history aids in observing, analyzing, and classifying the life activities of today, that it assists in forming valuations and norms for judging character, that the methods of solving past problems can be applied, if modified, to present problems, that history can help to teach tolerance, and lastly that it aids in breaking down the loneliness of the present. These statements

of value sound somewhat like the values talked of today, although the terminology has changed slightly. In place of referring to "observing, analyzing, and classifying life activities," a present-day writer is apt to use a term similar to "understanding social phenomena." In place of speaking of "forming valuations and norms for judging character," the present-day writer is likely to have in mind actual changes in the character of the student of history, and will use a term implying modified behavior in the student as a result of the study of history. Instead of referring to the use of past problems in the solutions of present problems, the recent writer is likely to mention specific abilities that might be developed, such as the ability to evaluate certain kinds of evidence, and is likely to speak of specific understandings that have been gained. Instead of saying that history teaches tolerance he is more likely to say that the study of history may develop certain attitudes of tolerance. Finally, in place of referring to history as "breaking down the loneliness of the present," he is more apt to refer to history as disclosing in a comprehensive fashion how the present arose out of the past.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE AIMS AND PURPOSES OF THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

This brief evaluation of the article, "Has History a Practical Value?," has implied that during the twenty years intervening between its date of publication and the present a considerable change has come over the expression of the aims and purposes of the teaching of history. That this change has taken place is the conclusion indicated by the evidence found in the examination of the files of the journal. As is to be expected, however, this evidence is not conclusive, for while revised or new aims appear in some of the articles appearing in the more recent issues, old aims reappear in other articles and show little change. From this condition it is probably fair to conclude that the aims of some of the more progressive contributors to the journal have undergone changes, while there is a tendency among the other contributors to avoid much innovation in aims. Specific instances of this condition need not be recited, for this article makes no attempt to indicate how widely the newer aims are accepted and how far the older ones are retained.

TEACHING FACTS

One of the oldest aims of history instruction has been the teaching of facts, an aim which among scholars dates back through the encyclopedic period of the natural sciences to the scholasticism of the middle ages. This aim still persists strongly, for in 1926, according to Miss Frances Morehouse,⁵ an examination of the syllabi of states, universities, and cities for courses in American History disclosed that the mastery of facts was one of the three most common aims listed. Almost every discussion of aims of history teaching approves of the use of facts in some

form, although the more recent tendency is to emphasize understanding, facts being used only as instruments in gaining understanding. Some persons, such as Carleton Washburne of Winnetka, Ill., have gone so far in one respect toward the aim of factual teaching that they have carried out elaborate statistical investigations to discover which facts are most necessary for the reading of common periodicals, and have organized courses designed to impart those facts as efficiently as possible. The most extreme advocacy of the teaching of facts or knowledge that occurred in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK and THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE over the twenty years in question appeared in the year 1912 in an article by W. MacDonald, "From the Point of View of the Col-Mr. MacDonald writes:

I must go further, and say that it does not seem to me to be the primary object of history teaching in either the college or secondary school to enable the pupil to understand or appreciate his social environment. That is making the stress fall upon the wrong point. It is making the study of history bear wholly upon the present and the future.

I think that the object of teaching history in a college, from the standpoint of both the instructor and the student, is roughly that of teaching the subject, of imparting as much knowledge of history....as is practicable under given conditions.

TEACHING ATTITUDES AND HABITS

That the study of facts should be used as a means of teaching a love of truth was the thesis of an article published in 1914.⁷ This was one of a number of articles which emphasized need for teaching emotional attitudes as well as factual information. As early as 1911 there appeared a review of the California History Teachers' Association, Stockton Meeting, the program of which centered entirely around the teaching of peace.⁸ In 1916 G. W. Eddy set forth a plan called "The Civic View of the Teaching of History," according to which he believed:

An abiding interest in the affairs of government and a patriotic attitude can be acquired in one year....9

A year later Herman V. Ames wrote an article called, "How Far Should the Teaching of History and Civics Be Used as a Means of Encouraging Patriotism?," answering his question by saying that history and civics should be used:

....to the point where people acquire a sense of unity of the country and a feeling of pride and admiration for its traditions, ideals, and achievements, but an exaggerated and unwholesome idea of nationalism must be recognized and guarded against.¹⁹

During the following years the discussion concerning the teaching of attitudes and habits was led by several articles devoted entirely to furthering "the international mind" and international good will as an aim of history teaching. Despite the great flood of propaganda during and after the war, calculated to arouse international suspicions and hatreds, and despite the whitewashing of the motives of the United States in the World War and in previous wars, during this period not a single chauvinistic article appeared in The History Teacher's Magazine or in The Historical Outlook. In 1923 Prof. C. J. H. Hayes contributed a paper called "Nationalism and

the Social Studies," defining "patriotism" in an international sense, urging teachers to teach this patriotism, and criticizing the inculcation of nationalism. In 1920 Arthur I. Gates pointed out that:

In the past historians have considered training of the emotions or feelings as an aim of history instruction; e. g., the cultivation of certain emotional response attitudes such as patriotism, reverence for established institutions, and so on. At its best history should further the development of the child as a whole; i. e., should develop habits of effectual thinking, feeling and acting with reference to the people, objects, laws, practices, institutions, ideals.¹²

What Gates would probably call "a habit of critical thinking," or in the earlier terminology, "the critical attitude," was another form of behavior which appeared very early as one of the aims of history teaching. In 1912 R. W. Kelsey, now of Haverford College, listed more than a column of disagreeing statements made by prominent historians, and wrote:

The fact that many conclusions of the specialist and of the general student of history must be based upon incomplete or unsatisfactory evidence makes the training of the historian a most valuable asset in practical life.

High school and college students may be taught to develop the critical attitude by teaching them to distinguish clearly between scholarly and popular histories, and to watch carefully in all histories for contradictions, loose statements, exaggerated conclusions.¹³

In the following year there appeared another article advocating critical thinking as an aim, arguing that the severity of the historical methods made the study of history "the invaluable foe of credulity." 14

RE-CREATING THE PAST

Unlike the aim of teaching certain attitudes and habits, the aim of re-creating the past is not an ultimate goal of history teaching, but it may be looked upon as an aim through which ultimate purposes can be accomplished. The history teachers who have failed to arouse in their pupils even the least genuine interest in the subject have been legion, a condition which some writers say can be overcome if the teacher would but put forth effort to make the subject interesting. Writing for the magazine in 1912, A. S. Draper said:

I am for Froude with his inaccuracies, rather than with any other who avoids positive statements and reduces human interests in the subject to the vanishing point....

One who has helped make history, if he has the other accomplishments, can write it better than those who had no part in making it, and no one can hope to write history unless he can put himself in spirit and sympathy with those who made it.

It is the business of the schools to see that students get a glimpse of the glamor and romance in history at times and in forms and quantities that will be good for their patriotic health....The generalities, the high-points, the speculations, or the philosophy of history are not of much concern to young people.

No subsequent writer advocating the aim of making history real has been willing to take such a strong stand in favor of "glamour and romance" as against "generalities and high points." Several writers, however, have pointed out that interest created by "a glimpse of glamour and romance" may often lead to an interest in reading outside the classroom such

kinds of historical writings as historical novels and biography. Prof. D. C. Knowlton of Yale has repeatedly urged the value of using pictorial material in history, and has been instrumental in the filming of *The Chronicles of America*. In 1925 he wrote as follows:

The central aim in the teaching of history, that of reseeing and re-living past times and situations, can be more nearly realized through dramatization than through any other device.¹⁶

CULTURAL VALUE

The study of history has probably been held to be of cultural value at least from the time it was introduced into the public schools, but it is doubtful if the expression, "cultural value," carries any generally accepted meaning in educational writings. Referring to values in the study of history, it is used so broadly as to be practically meaningless. Writing in 1913, Prof. C. J. H. Hayes states:

History is unquestionably valuable from both the cultural and the utilitarian standpoints.¹⁷

Webster's Secondary-School Dictionary defines "culture" as "the enlightenment and discipline acquired by mental and moral training; refinement." Under this definition, "culture" would include practically all understanding, comprehension, insight, and enlightenment, as well as most habits of thinking, feeling, and acting. The term is as indefinite as the expression, "liberal education," about the meaning of which history teachers have only a vague feeling. So long has the term "culture" been bandied about uselessly in treatises on education that it has lost whatever precise meaning it might once have had. It is significant to note that only rarely has the term been introduced in recent discussions of the aims and values in history teaching, and when the term is used the writer is careful to indicate the meaning it is intended to carry.

TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP THROUGH THE STUDY OF HISTORY

In 1914, when he was State Commissioner of Education of Massachusetts, David Snedden wrote:

...history teachers do not certainly know what results they seek...¹⁸

Two years earlier he had written in the magazine that neither the teachers nor the public have been able to formulate the real aims of history instruction. He himself was in doubt, but he guessed that the aim was to encourage good citizenship and manhood.19 In this same year, 1914, E. E. Slosson contributed a clever satire on the public schools, in which he made apparent the uselessness of much that was being taught, and in which he made a strong implication that the business of the school is to impart to children an understanding of the origins and the development of the society which surrounds them.20 Even earlier, T. F. Collier had written that history should prepare one for intelligent, sympathetic, effective co-operation with his fellowmen, that it should make one magnanimous, tolerant, and catholic, that it should help one to set himself in correct relation with his own time and that it should assist one in discovering what the trustworthy guides of the time are.²¹ These, apparently, were the articles which in The History Teacher's Magazine first brought forward the claim that history should prepare for citizenship.

In the same year that Snedden stated, "history teachers do not know the results they seek," he wrote:

It has been asserted that the study of history lays the foundations for good citizenship; that it teaches the pupil to think, to reason, and to judge; that it makes for good character; that it promotes social efficiency; and that it gives culture.

From recent evidence it appears that many of these aims are not attainable to any degree through the study of history. The purpose of the general high school is to offer liberal education, and so the purposes of history and the other subjects as well should be defined in terms of better citizenship and better general culture. In the realm of personal culture come the aims of permanent esthetic and intellectual interests, as well as a mastery of the instruments necessary to their constitution and development. In the realm of citizenship are all the questions which make for a more effective group life: submission to established political order, co-operative maintenance and improvement of it, and the remaining social virtues or moral worths.

Therefore, history teaching must be based primarily

Therefore, history teaching must be based primarily upon a fairly well-defined knowledge of the social institutions of the present. The pupil must understand these first. He must gain ideals of right social action.²²

This was written in 1914. In 1927 Earle U. Rugg reported in The Historical Outlook that W. J. Osburn, of the State Department of Education of Wisconsin, concluded from an examination of 56,000 history questions that appeared on final examinations throughout the country that eighty-six per cent. of the questions were seeking to test almost wholly one or two of these aims:

(1) To discipline the memory (63 per cent.); (2) to teach the power to organize facts (23 per cent.). The following aims of recognized experts were either not mentioned or but in slight degree—less than 1 per cent.: (1) To teach the nature of historical evidence and the habit of weighing it; (2) to afford practical knowledge for use in daily life; (3) to inculcate a taste for historical reading; (4) to bring about sympathy and understanding among peoples and nations; (5) to inculcate the love of truth; (6) to fit boys and girls for citizenship; (7) to promote scientific thinking; (8) to correct superficial and prejudicial thinking; (9) to interpret the present and judge the future in terms of the past; and (10) to afford moral training.

The prestige of knowledge and discipline are still apparent. But all these other values are also theoretical justifications or assumptions. The "drives" of knowledge and discipline still "carry over." Not until we devise tests for each aim will we know whether historical study does realize each and every aim set up. At present they are but theoretical.²³

To many persons it has become increasingly apparent that if education is to serve the purpose of preparation for citizenship, the history class alone is unable to achieve that purpose. This realization has probably been the chief cause for the appearance of the other social studies in the high school and the junior high school. In a searching article published in 1928 by G. A. Andrews, the question is asked:

....is training for citizenship the ultimate goal and objective of history teaching to any greater extent than it is the

ultimate goal of education in all its branches?....Do we find that a good student of history is a better citizen than is a good student of the sciences? 24

As early as 1912 Snedden was convinced that:

Our duties are to teach history, and also to teach something that has not been named, but which I call sociology.¹⁹

AIMS OF THE OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES

As early as 1916 the National Education Association had appointed a Committee on Social Studies, which reported in part as follows:

The keynote of modern education is "social efficiency." The social studies afford peculiar opportunities for the training of the individual as a member of society; this is their primary aim. Results in personal culture are only incidental. This primary aim should be accomplished through the development of an appreciation of the nature of the laws of social life, a sense of responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups, and the intelligence and the will to participate effectively in the promotion of the social well-being. In brief, the aim is the cultivation of good citizenship.²⁵

This report of the Committee on Social Studies enjoyed wide publicity, partly because of its publication by the Federal Bureau of Education, and partly as a result of the activities of the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship, an organization which was created frankly as a propaganda agent. The expressed purpose of the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship was:

To encourage the education of boys and girls of the United States concerning the origin and development of liberty, co-operation, and democracy; the economic, political, and social problems confronting democracy today; the responsibility of citizens in a democracy; and the ends and values of living.²⁶

The purpose of the committee included the aim of teaching girls how to vote so that they would be able to use the ballot effectively upon gaining their majority.

From February to June of the year 1920 members of the National Committee for Teaching Citizenship conducted a "Department of Social Studies" in the columns of The Historical Outlook. Later their appeared in the journal reports made by the Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, one of which reads:

The special purpose of this educational unit, the social studies, is to introduce the rising generation to the thought of those who have sought, and are seeking, social progress.³⁷

Apparently these bodies were quite successful in their advocacy of the addition of the other social studies to the curriculum to meet the widely recognized aim of education to train for citizenship. Statements of the values to be derived from the social studies began to appear in state syllabi, of which the following statements are instances. The Pennsylvania "Program of the Social Studies" read:

History gives us a perspective as to how mankind has slowly and painfully learned to lead the group life; social science gives us a sort of cross-section view of how man is now leading the group life, through various organizations and activities that together constitute present-day civilization. The course, Problems in Democracy, is intended primarily to train our upper high school students in how

to investigate, to reason, to compare, to judge. It is expected to train in power and initiative. As a by-product, it lays a foundation in the social sciences for those who continue in college and those who do not.²⁸

Connecticut states the fundamental purpose for all the social studies is:

To help pupils develop an understanding of the human world about them and to become *intelligent*, considerate, co-operative individuals in their collective life.²⁰

In 1922 the magazine printed a symposium called "Characteristic Elements of the Social Studies," in which the peculiar contribution to education made by each of the social studies was stated by one or more well-known specialists in that subject. The aims which are printed are, on the whole, quite well formulated, but are very comprehensive in nature.³⁰

EXPERIMENTAL CURRICULA MAKING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The very comprehensiveness of the commonly expressed aims of the various social studies has been a source of wide-spread dissatisfaction which has been at least a partial cause for a great deal of experimentation in the social studies. The Committee on Social Studies in Secondary Education, of the National Education Association, epitomized the cause for a good share of the experimentation when it said:

It is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them; that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex; and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments only on the basis of dispassionate consideration of all the facts available.³¹

As one state superintendent expressed it, curricula makers must remember that in actual life "students face problems, not sciences."

To a large extent the experimentation has been in the direction of teaching the social sciences by a series of comprehensive concepts and problems rather than by presenting a body of organized and scientific knowledge. Such a course is more apt to be called something like "Community Life and Civic Problems" than "Contemporary Sociology," or something like "The Development of Civilization" rather than "General History." A number of experiments in this direction have been referred to or reported in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, the most notable article on the subject being "Experimental Curricula Making in the Social Studies," contributed by J. M. Gambrill in Among the experiments described by Mr. Gambrill were those being carried on by the University High School of the University of Chicago, Prof. H. O. Rugg at Columbia University, Dean L. C. Marshall of the University of Chicago, Superintendent of Schools C. W. Washburne of Winnetka, Director of Social Studies J. L. Barnard of the State of Pennsylvania, D. C. Knowlton of the Lincoln School, and other experimentors at the Oakland, Calif., schools, at Detroit, and at the University High

School, University of Missouri. Much of the experimentation centered around the "Problems of Democracy" courses, which were quite new at the time.

Despite the increased attention that has been given to curricula in the social studies, the present development appears far from satisfactory, although progress has undoubtedly been made in the direction of securing a better learning product through the better selection of material. At present, further development of curricula seems to be dependent upon clearer expression of aims of the social studies. The situation as it stood in 1927 was summarized by Prof. Edgar Dawson in the following words:

Educators are still waiting for the leader who will understand and state the purposes of training for citizenship in a way that is not only acceptable to the trained psychologist and the student of ethics, but at the same time simple enough to appeal to the practical teacher and the maker of school curricula. It is hoped that the investigation now beginning may result in enlightenment. If it does no more than issue a practical analysis of definite "objectives," to use the educator's terminology, it will justify several years of effort on the part of the scholars who have committed themselves to it. Such objectives may include the following:

I. The acquisition of Information. (Knowledge.)

II. Development of Understanding. Uses the facts of history to understand that what is has come about through a long process of evolution, a chain of causation the links of which were often unseen by the persons who forged them, and seen awry by those who watched and tried to use the chain. Understanding is assisted by knowledge of geography and psychology.

III. Respect for Scientific Training and Experience.

IV. Faith in the Future."

FORMULATION OF DETAILED AIMS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Until the latter half of the twenty-year period under consideration, almost every contributor to the magazine who stated objectives or values of instruction in the social studies, did so in terms so general as to be of little practical value. During this first decade only rarely did a writer try to analyze general objectives or general values into specific aims which might be definitely striven for in the classroom, and the achievement of which might be measured accurately. The writer who presented the most detailed analysis during this period was C. O. Davis, who, under the caption of "Realizable Educational Values in History," listed values as:

- 1. Auxiliary (i. e., lending aid to other school subjects).
- 2. Practical or utilitarian.
- Intellectual value. Development of the following "powers to think":
 - a. Observation.
 - b. Attention.
 - c. Perception.
 - d. Analysis.
 - e. Comparison.
 - f. Discrimination.
 - g. Imagination.
 - h. Conception.
 - Association.
 Judgment.
 - k. Reason.
 - 1. Memory.

m. Expression.

- n. Resourcefulness.
 4. Political and civic value.
- 5. Social value.
- 6. Ethical value.
- Religious value.
 Aesthetic value.
- 9. Conventional value.
- 10. Cultural value.34

The terms listed here were so general as to be of little use; as for example, "memory," "cultural value," and "reason." Furthermore, the article accepts the theory of general mental faculties which is now in general disrepute. Today psychologists say that the transfer values which this article implies to be great are probably very slight.

In contrast to this list of abstract faculties to be developed by the study of history, the following list, compiled in 1922 by a committee on history textbooks used in the public schools of New York City, indicates more specific and detailed aims:

- To acquaint the pupils with the basic facts and movements—political, industrial, and social—of American history.
- To emphasize the principles and motives that were of greatest influence in the formation and development of our government.
- 3. To establish ideals of patriotic and civic duty.
- To awaken in the pupil a desire to emulate all praiseworthy endeavor.
- To present the ethical and moral principles exemplified in the lives of patriotic leaders.
- To inspire in the pupil an appreciation of the hardships endured and the sacrifices made in establishing and defending American ideals.
- To develop in the pupil a love for American institutions and the determination to maintain and defend them.
- To bring the light of reason and experience to bear on radical or alien theories of economic and political systems.
- 10. To enable the pupil to interpret the present in terms of the past and to view intelligently the functions and the value of existing systems.³⁶

In the same year The Historical Outlook published also a list of the following "desired and probable results of a history project, contributed by Prof. W. H. Kilpatrick:

- That pupils shall learn better how to cope with such a problem.
- 2. That pupils shall learn better how to think (critically) in such a field.
- That pupils shall learn a considerable amount of the history, politics, and geography relating to the problems under discussion. This alone is what the traditional teacher seems to seek.
- That pupils shall grow in such desirable traits as open-mindedness, tolerance, etc.
- That they make progress toward certain valuable social concepts, ideals, and attitudes: "open door," national honor, etc.
- That they shall develop interests in matters pertaining to the subject at hand.
- That they shall build up valuable personal attitudes, as self-confidence.
- That they improve in such social virtues as courtesy, co-operation, etc.
- That they build a greater respect for interest and achievement in such intellectual and moral inquiries and endeavors.[™]

During the following year there appeared the "Report of the Committee of Five on American History Textbooks Now in Use in California High Schools, which lists seven somewhat definite "principles and ideals." They are:

- 1. Pride in America and a Sense of Nationality.
- 2. A Sense of Individual Liberty.
- 3. A Respect for Private Property.
- A Belief in Democratic Self-Government by Majority Rule.
- 5. Obedience to Law.
- 6. A Desire for Justice.
- 7. A Will to Defend These Principles.

In 1926, R. W. Hatch and DeForest Stull contributed a list of seventeen objectives for a unit fusion course in the social studies for the junior high school. The seventeen are:

- "To teach groups of subjects together in their natural relations."—Charles W. Eliot.
- To create a sympathetic understanding and appreciation of the peoples of the earth as they are confronted with problems, internal and external, which have grown out of historical, geographic, and political factors.
- To give children that geographical and historical background which will assist in the understanding and solution of many problems of the past and present.
- To give a better understanding of, and respect for, the people from various nations who have come within our national boundary lines.
- To give the adolescent child an understanding of the interdependence of nations in this day of almost instantaneous communication and transportation.
- To try to find why people in different parts of the world have developed different types of civilization.
- To compare other nations with the United States whenever possible, and thus get better understandings.
- To give ability to use tools of various kinds, such as maps, graphs, encyclopedias, the Reader's Guide, and other books of reference.
- To make the child familiar with the great amount of social studies material to be found in current magazines and newspapers.
- To show the great need for the conservation of the world's human and material resources.
- To learn how to work together in contributing to the solution of a common problem.
- 12. To train and develop the citizenship qualities of tolerance and open-mindedness.
- To evaluate propaganda whenever it may be found; text, reference book, current materials, persons.
- To challenge, compare, and evaluate the facts under discussion.
- To give training in mental integrity and suspended judgment.
- To condemn the superficial and to respect the wellconsidered.
- 17. To develop "a reasoned self-confidence." 38

Judging from the seventy-six lists and discussions of aims and purposes of the social studies which constitute the basis of this article, the recently developed aims for the teaching of economics appear to be more practicable than the aims presented for any of the other social studies. As early as 1921, Miss Francis Morehouse listed the following six practicable objectives of a ninth year course in leading industries:

1. To furnish the means of giving students a fund of

useful facts about the economic world in which they (Necessary before abstract thinking.)

- 2. To show how dependent every human being is upon the production of the economic world; to build up the conception of social and economic interdependence without which no one understands the world as
- 3. To give a basis for the teaching of the simpler facts and terms of the study of economics.
- 4. To show the close relationship between economic life and social and political life.
- To develop a social spirit in the students—a sym-pathy with all workers and a friendly and open attitude toward all legitimate enterprise.
- To give pupils a firm grasp of the developmental process, on the economic side, by which the present United States was created.30

Not only do these aims appear both valuable and attainable, but they lend themselves to easy translation into specific content or "assimilative material" for the course, into organization of the material, and into the procedure of teaching the course. In 1929 H. G. Shields published a contribution under the title of "Objectives in Junior College Economics," which enumerates the following objectives:

- 1. Give the student sufficient training in elementary economics to enable him to avoid common economic fallacies as a citizen, producer, and consumer.
- 2. Give the student sufficient training in economic theory to prepare for further work in economics.
- 3. Give the student a means of interpreting current economic life.
- 4. Give the student an awareness of present economic problems.
- 5. Give the student a means of arriving at safe and sound conclusions regarding economic problems.
- 6. Give the student a desire to improve our present economic life.
- 7. Give the student enough economic training so as to fit into his general social training.
- 8. Serve as an orientation course in so far as the individual's economic life is concerned.
- Train the student as a consumer of economic goods, 10. Give the student some instruments or tools of thought
- which will be useful vocationally. 11. Give the student a means of interpreting past economic life.40

More than any list of aims, values, or objectives appearing during the last two decades in the magazine Mr. Shields' list seems to lend itself most readily to practical use. The first objective, for example, is "to give the student sufficient training in elementary economics to enable him to avoid common economic fallacies as a citizen, producer, and consumer." To attain this objective the teacher can draw up a list which enumerates all the fallacies or types of fallacies which he wishes his students to avoid throughout their lives. These fallacies or types of fallacies can then be studied directly in the course, either at one time or, if the course is presented as a science rather than a series of problems, at times when they are most pertinent to the principles under discussion. If the teacher sees fit, he may avoid emphasis upon the fallacies, emphasizing instead those principles which, when once understood in all their ramifications, make the detection of fallacies practically inevitable. The

degree of success in this teaching can be determined without difficulty. Fallacious statements can be presented on tests in a form different from the specific fallacies mentioned in class. If the students are directed to evaluate these statements, and if they have thoroughly mastered the principles underlying the fallacious statements presented, they can always detect and expose the underlying misconception. This particular aim of practicable objectives for a course in economics, however, may represent a degree of practicability impossible of attainment in certain phases of some of the social studies.

From an examination of the aims and values appearing in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE and in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK the conclusion seems clear that there is a definite trend toward practicability. And there is no reason to believe that the trend has suddenly stopped; on the contrary, there is reason to believe that perhaps the trend is setting in more sharply, for the past decade has displayed a remarkable approach toward a scientific study of education, with educational research and educational theory advancing at an increased pace.

N. B .- All references are to THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE and THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK unless otherwise

This statement is difficult to authenticate, but we know from Napoleon's writings that he had no good opinion of the greater portion of historical writing. He wrote in his diary for April 19, 1807, "There have been historiographers of France, but it is true to say that they have accomplished nothing....a good history can be made to order," in which the context gives a strong implication that he meant history can be written to suit any purpose. See R. M. Johnston (ed.), The Corsican, A Diary of Napoleon's Life in His Own Words. Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1910, 268.

² When giving testimony on the witness stand Henry Ford denied having made the statement, testifying, "I say Mr. Delavigne added that. I don't remember even reading it." On cross-examination, however, he admitted, "History was bunk to me." See excerpts of testimony in The Chicago Daily Tribune for Wednesday, July 16, 1919, page 4, column The New York Times of that date, on page 2, column 6, prints a different selection of testimony.

- 8 XVI, 355-94.
- 5 XVII, 110ff.
- 7 V, 37-8.
- ⁹ VII, 120-2. ¹¹ XIV, 245-9.
- 13 III, 57.
- 14 IV, 35-40.
- 16 XVI, 222.
- 16 V, 223-7.
- 20 V, 44-7.
- 22 V, 277-82; slightly paraphrased.
- 25 VIII, 21-5; paraphrased.
- 27 XVI, 401.
- 29 XVII, 175ff.
- at XVII, 157ff.
- 32 XIV, 384-406; XV, 37-55.
- M VI, 167-78; paraphrased.
- 36 XIII, 215-6.
- 28 XVII, 371ff.
- 40 XX, 113ff.

- 4 I, 103-4.
- e III, 105-6.
- 8 III, 37.
- 10 VIII, 188-92. 12 XI, 227-30; slightly para-
- phrased.
- 18 III, 71-3; paraphrased.
- 17 IV, 241-8.
- 19 III, 103-5.
- 21 IV, 91-4. 23 XVIII, 369ff.
- 24 XIX, 120ff.
- 3 XIII, 87; also XI, 85-6.
- 28 XIII, 337-9.
- 30 XIII, 327-37; see also XVII, 7ff; VIII, 222-6.
- 53 XVIII, 153ff: paraphrased.
- 35 XIII, 250-5.
- 37 XIV, 54-6.
- ²⁰ XII, 119-42.

History Teaching in Other Lands

II. Aims and Content of History Teaching in Elementary Schools

ANNOTATED TRANSLATION BY DRS. JOS. STRAYER, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY AND RUTH McMURRY, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

We touch here on the most critical part of the subject, on the point which may cause the most numerous and lively arguments. Our investigators have not tried to avoid this difficulty. It is to these problems that they have devoted their longest explanations. In this connection two groups of questions may be framed:

- Why is history taught? Does this instruction have any practical effect upon the conduct of life? What should be the content of this instruction?
- 2. Can the teaching of history exert influence on general culture? Can it be an instrument of "culture" for pupils of elementary schools? If it can, how should this influence be exerted?

The teaching of history in elementary schools should not be simply to satisfy curiosity; it should have a practical value. Its proper end is to initiate pupils into the knowledge of the social world, as physics or biology introduces them into the world of material facts. As a consequence, it fits them better for public life. It follows that the history which is first taught to a student will be the history of the country where he is to live, of his own country, for the nation, the fatherland, is an historic and moral reality which, at the present moment, conditions social relations and duties, as well as economic relations and possibilities. He should know the whole of which he is only a part.

But to teach the history of the native land is to form the sentiment of patriotism, and certain people have feared that "the civic point of view in the teaching of history may injure the scientific point of view, for, without concerning himself with civic training, the historian should have no other preoccupation than to tell the truth." This first danger is more apparent than real, for there is nothing in the nature of things which prevents teaching historic facts concerning the native land and at the same time showing a rigorous respect for truth. It is simply a question of the teacher's conscience and knowledge.

There is also danger that cultivation of national sentiment will contradict that other historic fact of still greater importance, the growing interdependence of peoples, and that through lack of knowledge it will create at least a ridiculous or dangerous chauvinism, if not hatred of the foreigner. To avoid this it is necessary and sufficient that the courses of study be not confined to instruction in national history, but that they make a more or less important place for universal history. This is, moreover, indispensable in various ways in explaining national history, and it also will place the latter in its proper place in the history of civilization and of human progress.

From a more strictly pedagogical viewpoint, it has been observed that to give a pupil a clearer idea of the present through a knowledge of the past, it would suffice to teach him the history of the last two or three centuries. Therefore the courses of history give more time to questions of modern and contemporary history.

Can history be used as an instrument of culture in elementary schools? It can, without any doubt. Handbooks on teaching, when they wish to show the influence of the study of history on general culture, are accustomed to insist on its effect on the imagination, the memory, the character, etc. But if it were only a question of developing the imagination or the memory, other disciplines could boast of obtaining more striking results. History has its own cultural aims, which evidently can be followed only in taking into account the age and intellectual possibilities of the scholar.

In the elementary period, history furnishes a framework for classifying the ideas which may be acquired from time to time concerning the past. Moreover, it shows us the evolution of human societies, permitting us to grasp by the method of comparisons, the differences between the various societies which formerly existed. Through this it teaches us tolerance toward men, while it permits us to view serenely the changes which the future may bring.

At a higher stage, history has a distinctive rôle in the general training of the mind. It develops the

Editor's Note.—This is the second installment of the reports of the Commission on History Teaching appointed by the International Committee of Historical Sciences. The Commission is composed of the following: Professor Gustave Glotz (France), Chairman; Dr. Otto Brandt (Germany), Secretary and Reporter; Don Rafael Altamira (Spain), Professor Edv. Bull (Norway), Senator C. Calisse (Italy), Dr. W. Carlgren (Sweden), Count Alfonso Celso (Brazil), Professor A. Domanovsky (Hungary), His Excellency Augustin Edwards (Chili), Professor M. Handelsman (Poland), Professor Frans van Kalken (Netherlands), Professor A. C. Krey (United States of America), Professor C. Marinescu (Rumania), Dr. H. Nabholz (Switzerland), Mme. Marie Nielson (Denmark), Dr. M. Pokrovsky (U. S. R.), Dr. J. Susta (Czechoslovakia), Professor Tenhaeff (Netherlands).

The reports will appear in full in the Bulletin of the International Committee of Historical Sciences, subscriptions to which (at \$1.00 for five numbers, or 25 cents a number) may be placed with Faxon and Co., 83 Francis Street, Boston, Mass.

critical spirit in a definite way. Historical facts known only by the testimony of others and not by direct observation are more difficult to grasp than facts which may be directly verified. They may be understood only by patient, sincere research, which advances step by step, which checks and criticizes with the sole desire of attaining a truth, however small it may be. It is a method of observation of social facts, and it is perhaps this attitude of the mind, this historical sense, which is the most profitable result of the study of history, the most useful for life as a man and a citizen. One problem is to initiate into this latter form of culture not the immature pupils, but the future instructors charged with teaching them history.

It seems that these were indeed the problems which were proposed in most of the countries, if not in all. The following are the solutions which were considered:

Germany. In this report there are extremely interesting suggestions on the evolution and transformation of the teaching of history in Germany by the new generations of historians, especially since the war. We regret that we cannot present them here in extenso.

The author of the report defines the aims assigned to the teaching of history in Germany according to the instructions given in different German states, taking as examples, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Saxony, and emphasizing especially "the famous Prussian instructions." (The question has provoked an abundant literature since the war.)

Bavaria. "Interest in present public life should be awakened, especially if in this teaching is included civic instruction." (Instruction of May, 1914.)

Würtemberg. "Even in the primary school an effort is being made to stimulate political thought in addition to knowledge of the most important events."

Prussia. An important place has been reserved for the teaching of history and the number of hours given to history has been increased. History is one of the fundamental subjects which transmit the inheritance of German culture and form the core of scholastic work. The main purpose of the teaching of history is not the learning of details. "On the contrary, a far more important aim is to develop the historical sense, in order that the pupils may learn to understand the present through the past, and that they may be no longer left to face news and events without defense and without critical spirit." Civic education and beyond that, knowledge of humanity, should be viewed as the highest aims of history teaching. "The belief in eternal and superhuman values in history, in intellectual aims which alone give meaning to all life work, and the consideration of liberty as the supreme human force," are some of these aims. "Instruction should never confine itself to German history, but on the contrary should always have in mind relations with world history; the history of other peoples should be known in so far as it explains

German history" or is explained by the latter. (Prussian instructions of 1921-22.) History should not only permit foreign points of view to be understood, but above all should aim at understanding foreign nations and their culture, and the author of the report insists on the importance and the bearing of Article 148 of the German Constitution which has made it a duty for all teachers to familiarize their pupils with the new Europe and the new world, love of country and of the people, and the spirit of international conciliation. He also says that teachers of history are especially charged to instruct young people in the spirit, the work, and the aims of the League of Nations. Since Germany has become a member of the League the orders of the Minister of Public Instruction of Prussia, dated May 28, 1927, have prescribed instruction concerning the League of Nations; from Prussia this practice has spread to other German states.

Because of the differences caused by the freedom left to the individual states, the investigator limits himself to giving us some general information about courses of study.

For a century it has been a well-established custom in Germany to distinguish three stages in teaching history: 1, the stage of development where the children of Sexta² and Quinta naïvely re-live history to some extent, and in which they are given impressions of historic events and personalities. 2, the stage in which intuitive comprehension is developed from Quarta to Obersekunda. In this stage the pupils in their activity instruction (Note 3) compile material from sources having educational value; from what are called "Quellen in Schulsinn"; 3, the stage in which the grasp of the material is thoughtful and penetrating and where there is systematic training of the historical sense. (Obersekunda to Oberprima.)

Belgium. The teaching of history in the elementary school has a well-marked national character. Emphasis is laid on the facts which best illustrate the evolution of national life in all its manifestations. The purpose "is to show without any chauvinism or war-like spirit how Belgium has come to be historically what she is. Thanks to the Belgians' obstinate love of independence, thanks also to the sacrifices which, when necessary, they have the strength to impose upon themselves, and to the feverish work to which they submit themselves in peace, the objective (of history teaching) is to implant in the heart of the rising generation the desire to continue this tradition."

In the normal school the purpose is the same. At this point, however, history necessarily goes beyond the limits of nationality. "It is traditional in Belgium, although the instructions are silent on this point, to make the teaching of history give a faithful reconstruction of the past; we repudiate all apologetic intentions, and we intend, above everything, to safeguard the moral point of view and the cultural point of view....why should there be apprehensions about

introducing a nationalistic instruction into the schools? Such instruction must seem to anyone at all familiar with the Belgian character to be out of harmony with that character."

Moreover, Belgian legislation, wishing to prevent any equivocation, organizes moral and civic instruction independently of history. Questions concerning the League of Nations are treated in the civics classes: among them, respect for nations and for their territories, fidelity to treaties of peace, the war, international co-operation, and the League itself.

In the courses of study, systematic teaching of history begins with pupils of the third group, children ten to eleven years old. The course of study of the third group includes the rest of Belgian history through the war of 1914, with the history of the Belgian Congo since the explorations of Stanley. This is for children twelve to thirteen years old.

National history is thus the basis of the courses of study. It deals essentially with the history of civilization; it is not appropriate to dwell too long on facts relating to war. The problem is to show how the nation has organized itself and developed throughout the centuries. But the course recommends, in addition, the study of certain social and civilizing events "of European or world history which have had repercussions in Belgium since the end of the eighteenth century; for example, the French Revolution, the Congress of Vienna, the Revolutions of 1830 and 1848, unification of Italy and of Germany, European colonization in the nineteenth century." A picture of the state of Europe at the beginning of the twentieth century completes these ideas.

At the end of the fourth group there are some lessons which give an idea of changing life conditions (struggle against hunger and thirst, clothing, means of travel, etc.).

As for the program of normal schools, in the preparatory year (the first year), the professor attempts to fix in the minds of the students a chronological table of outstanding events in universal history. In the three following years the course provides for an intensive study in chronological order of several particularly important periods; for example, Europe in the fourth and fifth centuries, Christianity, the World War, the heroic rôle of the Belgian army and people, and the Treaty of Versailles.

The fifth year is devoted to the professional training of teachers. There is a reaction against the tendency to see in history only material for memory. The students are encouraged to reason and to comprehend the relationships between different events. The work consists, on the whole, in a series of carefully thought out and critical readings like those of the cultivated man who, as he studies an historical work, tries to reach an opinion on its contents through reflective thought.

Denmark. The purpose of the teaching of history is to enable pupils to orient themselves in the current of human life, and especially in the life which is

closest to them, to give them very general political and social ideas, and to make them understand the society to which they belong, and to interest themselves in it (at the same time, imagination and perception are to be developed).

In the elementary schools with seven classes (Copenhagen) the history of Denmark is taught from the third through the fifth years. This instruction is brought up to the present time and includes some facts of Norwegian and Swedish history. Special emphasis is laid upon the history of civilization and a rather large place is given to the biography of the great men of Denmark.

In the sixth and seventh classes, general history is studied. Half of the lessons is devoted to the history of Denmark. Emphasis is laid upon everything which helps to explain present conditions; for example, the freeing of the peasants, the labor question, the development of industry. Here biographies of men who have influenced these events are still used.

The other half of the lessons is devoted to general history; thus the program of the seventh class includes history from Napoleon I to the present.

Some elements of social science are added to this class, and in the last year the question of the League of Nations is studied.

In the country schools, which often have only two classes, general history is no longer taught at all.

In the middle schools general history is treated by "fragments," that is to say, it is limited to the history of important facts and biographies of the most influential men. A little more emphasis is given to the history of Norway and Sweden in their relations to Denmark.

At the normal school the number of hours of history a week is three the first year, two the second, and three the third. The course of study emphasizes especially modern history, Scandinavian history since 1660, and general history since 1789. The rest of the history work is limited to the study of a few selected topics. This instruction "is treated essentially as a sort of memory work." The teaching of history includes also some study of social sciences.

At the present time one can "truthfully affirm that instruction in history is given in a healthy national spirit without chauvinism or enmity, emphasizing the community of race and culture with the other Scandinavian people.

United States. There is no national direction of education in the United States; this direction is left to the government of each state; in fact, authority belongs to local officials. If follows that the quality and character of the schools vary greatly.

History is generally considered as a subject which contributes to the understanding of social conditions and community life. "To learn to live happily together is perhaps the principal aim of instruction in the field of history."

In elementary schools the courses in history are generally associated with the courses in civic instruction; in the high schools, with the courses in political economy and sociology.

Other cultural ends are likewise pursued: knowledge of the moral and material progress of humanity, knowledge of the great men and women of the past, and contact with great historians.

If the creation of patriotic feeling is one of the most generally acknowledged purposes of the teaching of history, there is, nevertheless, a great diversity here. No school limits itself to teaching American history, but some teachers give more importance to the study of European than to the study of American history. The treatment given the League of Nations also varies with the school.

Because of the school organization of the United States there can be no uniformity in the courses of study. Nevertheless, certain societies such as the American Historical Association or the National Education Association have drawn up and proposed programs which the author of the report has indicated to us, and it is noteworthy that these programs have been widely adopted. All of them, together with the history of America, give a place to ancient history,

to the history of medieval and modern Europe, and especially to the history of England.

Courses of study followed in the normal schools, the teachers' colleges, or the training classes are so varied that it would be useless to describe them.

¹ In Bavaria the integration of history with the related subjects, such as German, foreign languages, and geography, is also suggested.

raphy, is also suggested.

² The German secondary schools, which pupils usually enter after four years in the elementary school, have a nine-year course. The names of the classes are Sexta, Quinta, Quarta, Untertertia, Obertertia, Untersekunda, Obersekunda, Unterprima, Oberprima.

³ In the "Suggestions" much emphasis is laid upon "activity instruction," in which the pupils, working under the direction of the teacher, gain their ideas, knowledges, and skills in the materials of instruction through their own activity. The author of the report on history teaching in Germany says that, when selecting material, the teacher must never regard the imparting of knowledge as the only aim of the work. He must always consider which of the abilities of the pupils can be developed and increased, especially independence of judgment, emotional reactions, the imagination, and the will power.

⁴The course in the eight-year Belgian elementary school is divided into four groups or grades of two years each.

Puritan Literature

BY HATTIE L. HAWLEY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, FITCHBURG, MASS.

The leaders of the Puritans who came to Massachusetts three hundred years ago, the tercentenary of whose arrival we are celebrating this year, were not poor men in England, but were, on the contrary, country gentlemen of good fortune. Their followers were well-to-do farmers from Lincolnshire, Suffolk, and Norfolk, men who were making a comfortable living at home.

From the beginning these men had a literature of their own. Drama was entirely lacking, and also novels. Their poetry may have left much to be desired, but the history they wrote, the travel narratives, the religious writings, the Indian narratives, had an originality and vigor that is undeniable.

On March 1, 1638, a printing house was set up at Cambridge. The first thing printed was the Freeman's Oath; the next was an Almanac; the next was the Psalms, "newly turned into meter." The printing of the Almanac before the Bay Psalm book suggests that New England weather must have been much the same then as now. The Almanac preceded the Psalm book.

The Bay Psalm book was the first book published in what is now the United States. It was afterward reprinted in England, where it passed through no less than eighteen editions, the last being issued in 1754. Twenty-one editions were printed in Scotland, the last bearing the date 1759. These editions, printed in the Old World, were published without the compiler's enjoying any remuneration from their sale. England thus pirated the first American book. She complained bitterly about American pirating of her

books during the middle of the nineteenth century; we were only paying her back for what she started in the seventeenth century.

The psalms in this book were put into verse by Reverends Weld and John Eliot of the Roxbury Church, and were translated directly from the Hebrew. The introduction contains the following apology:

"If therefore, the Verses are not always so smooth and elegant as some may desire or expect; let them consider that God's Altar needs not our polishing, for we have respected rather a plain translation, than to smooth our verses with any paraphrase and so have attended conscience rather than elegance, fidelity rather than poetry, in translating the Hebrew words into English language."

Some of the verses were decidedly unpolished, as verse 10 in Psalm 51:

"Create in mee cleane heart at last, God: a right spirit in me make, Nor from thy presence quite me cast, Thy holy Spright nor from me take."

One critic has said that the lines of the Bay Psalm book clank like an engine with gravel in the bearings.

The significance of the existence of a printing press in Cambridge eight short years after the coming of the Puritans to Massachusetts Bay becomes more evident when we discover that the earliest printing done in important places in England was much later. The first printing in Rochester, England, was 1648; in Manchester, 1732; Liverpool, 1750; and

Liverpool was a city of some 25,000 inhabitants. Books and education were to these Puritans of Massachusetts a necessary part of life, and very early

provided for.

During the first century literature was mainly devoted to religious writings and to controversial theology. A typical title is "The Heart of New England Rent at the Blasphemies of the Present Generation." This was written by John Norton and published at Cambridge in 1651. It was directed against the teaching of the Quakers.

Of the one hundred fifty-seven books put out by the press at Cambridge from its establishment through the year 1670, sixty-three were on religious

subjects.

The Puritan seems to have done considerable reading. John Winthrop in 1640 is said to have possessed over one thousand volumes. John Harvard left to Harvard College three hundred twenty books. The libraries of other leading men not infrequently contained several hundred volumes. In many cases these private libraries were brought over when the owner migrated from England, but additions were constantly being made by shipment across the Atlantic

Some idea of the subjects which interested the New England mind may be gained from inventories of books sent to Boston booksellers. The volumes delivered by Chiswell of London to John Usher in May, 1684, were two Bibles, thirty Greek Grammars, six copies of "Sincere Converts," three of Bythner on the Psalms, ten copies of Flavel on the Sacrament, ten copies of "Cattechise," two copies of the Cambridge Concordance, two of Sellers' "Practice of Navigation," two of Wilson's "Christian Dictionary," five of Clark's "Tutor," four of Borroughs' "Gospel Remission," four of "The State of New England."

The New England Primer is one of the oldest and most curious books published in New England. There is an advertisement of a second edition as early as 1691. This little book began with the alphabet.

After the alphabet, ending with

"Zacheus he Did climb the tree Our Lord to see,"

comes a section headed by these words:

"Now the Child being entred in his Letters and Spelling let him learn these and such like Sentences by Heart, whereby he will be both instructed in his Duty and Encouraged in his learning."

These things to be learned by heart are called "The Dutiful Child's Promises" and begin bravely:

"I will fear God and honor the King, I will honor my father and mother,

I will obey my superiors, I will submit to my Elders."

Poor little Puritan children!

As one would expect, the religious note dominates the New England primer. A few dreadful pictures illustrate the text, among them the burning of Mr. John Rogers whose wife and ten children are represented as looking on at the gruesome spectacle. With the exception of the Bay Psalm book we find but little poetry. Some of the clergymen tried their hand at it and left verses, some of which survived their sermons, but nearly all of both are forgotten now. One curious book in verse is, "The Simple Cobbler of Aggawam, in America, willing to help mend his native country, lamentably tattered, both in the upper leather and sole, with all the honest stitches he can take." This was written by Nathaniel Ward, Minister of Ipswich, and printed in London in 1647. It was intended as a satire aimed at what the old minister considered the follies of his day. It is the rankest doggerel.

Another attempt at poetry is Michael Wigglesworth's "Day of Doom," or a poetical description of

the great and last Judgment.

Anne Bradstreet, daughter of Governor Dudley, and wife of a later governor of the colony, is remarkable as a woman who wrote poetry at a time, and in a land where most women did not know how to write even their own names. Her name was not signed to her efforts. They were published as:

"Several Poems, compiled with great variety of Wit and Learning, full of delight; wherein especially is contained a Complete Discourse and Description of the Four Elements, Constitutions, Ages of Man, and Seasons of the year, together with an exact Account of the Three First Monarchies, the Assyrian, Persian, and Grecian and the beginning of the Roman Commonwealth to the end of their last king, with divers other Pleasant and Serious Poems, By a Gentlewoman of New England." This was printed in Boston, 1640, and in London, 1650, under the title of "The Tenth Muse Lately Sprung up in America."

Mrs. Bradstreet's verses are better than those of Wigglesworth or Nathaniel Ward, but they have the

true Puritan flavor, as these lines show:

"So he that saileth in this world of pleasure,
Feeding on sweets that never bit of the sour;
That's full of friends, of honor, and of treasure,
Fond fool! He takes this earth e'en for heaven's bower.
But sad affliction comes and makes him see,

Here's neither honor, wealth, nor safety; Only above is found all with security."

How often the Puritan muse found expression in elaborate if not very cheerful epitaphs any of the old cemeteries bears witness with such verses as these:

"Oh, youth attend,
Thy Life Amend
And be prepared to die;
For think how soon,
'Twill be your doom,
To lie as low as I."

The first American newspaper was begun in Boston, 1704. This was the "Boston News Letter," printed on half a sheet of paper, folio size. By 1748 the number of newspapers in Boston had grown to five.

Almanacs were printed in large numbers. They occupied a place similar to that of the magazine of today.

John Josselyn's "Two Voyages to New England," made during the years 1638, 1663, is the most human

of the early travels in these parts, and more readable today than many more modern travels. Here is

part of a paragraph from the first voyage:

"In the afternoon I walked into the Woods and happening into a fine broad walk, which was a sledgeway, I wandered till I chanct to spye a fruit as I thought like a pine apple plated with scales, it was as big as the crown of a woman's hat; I made bold to step unto it, with an intent to have gathered it, no sooner had I toucht it but hundreds of wasps were about me; at last I cleared myself from them, being stung only by one upon the upper lip, glad I was that I scaped so well; but by that time I was come into the house my lip was swell'd so extreamly that they hardly knew me but by my garments.'

Josselyn was a good observer. He made copious notes of all that he saw, and gives a detailed account of animals, plant life, birds, fishes, and Indians found in the new land. Some of it reads like a catalog, but even the catalog is worth reading for the quaint remarks that are interwoven. The following sentences are taken from the end of the account of the

first vovage:

...."We had very cold weather at sea, our deck in a morning ore-spread with hoarie frost and dangling isickles hung upon the Ropes. Some say the sea is hotter in winter, than in summer; but I did not find

it so."

The events of the first years of the settlement, 1630-1649, are recorded in the "History of New England" by John Winthrop, the first governor. It is in diary form, somewhat prosy, but full of quaint glimpses into the lives of the Puritans. We are told how bullets were used for money; how a woman was punished by "a cleft stick put on her tongue for half an hour"; how the drowning of a child in a well was God's punishment upon the father for working after sundown the Saturday before and was so regarded by the child's father.

We have also the Letters of Winthrop and his wife Margaret to each other, Puritan love-letters, although these were not published till 1825. Sometimes one feels that letters of so private and personal a nature ought never to see the light of print; but these loveletters are often very beautiful. Here is the post-

script to one of them:

"I have nothing to send thee but my love, neither shall I bring thee anything but myself, which I know will be best welcome.'

Judge Sewall's Diary covers the history of the period from 1673-1729. The following entries are from the years 1675-1677:

"A Scotchman and Frenchman kill their master, knocking him in the head as he was taking tobacco. They are taken by hue and cry and condemned. Hanged

"Stephen Gobble of Concord was executed for murder of Indians; three Indians for firing Eames House and murder. The weather was cloudy and rawly cold, though little or no rain. Mr. Mighill prayed; four others sat on the gallows, two men and two impudent women, one of whom at least laughed on the gallows as several testified.

"John Holiday stands in the pillory for counterfeiting a lease, making false bargains, &c.'

There is an ancient joke about the settlers of New England, that first they fell on their knees, and then they fell on the aborigines. The truth, however, is that the Puritan was greatly concerned with the conversion and education of the Indian. Later, when the red men became a hostile menace, and tomahawk and scalping knife a constant danger, the Puritan showed no more mercy than did his savage enemy. Both phases of Puritan relations with the red-man found their reflection in literature.

The writings of John Eliot tell of his patient labors in conversion of the Indians; and the books of Daniel Gookin describe the praying Indians, and the effects of the gospel upon them. The hostile Indian is described in the many Indian captive narratives known as Indian Captivities which enjoyed a popularity in England in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, rivalled only by our present-day bestsellers. The hostile Indian figures in William Hubbard's "Narrative of the Troubles with the Indians," published at Boston, 1677; in Thomas Church's "Entertaining Passages Relating to Philip's War," Boston, 1716; and in another account by Increase Mather, a "Brief History of the War." also shorter accounts which writers in Boston sent over to friends in London, and which were printed there in 1675-1676 as pamphlets.

There was much speculation in the early times as to who the Indians were; and many were inclined to believe that they were the lost tribes of Israel and therefore objects of Christian pity and compassion. John Eliot, the missionary to the Indians, firmly believed this to be true. Much ingenuity was exercised in trying to show a resemblance between the Indian and the Hebrew languages. But Eliot said: "I have found a greater affinity in it with the Greek tongue than with the Hebrew." Of course the connection of Indian dialects with either Greek or Hebrew lay entirely in the Puritan imagination.

John Eliot came to New England in 1631 to preach in Roxbury. He had a hand with Weld and Richard Mather in the translation of the Bay Psalm book and did other writing also. About 1645 he became interested in trying to save the Indians, whom he called "those ruins of mankind," and labored to that end during the remainder of his life. He wrote two catechisms in the Indian tongue. He translated the Catechisms, Primer, Singing-Psalms, Practice of Pietv. Baxter's Call. and the Bible, which were printed at the expense of Londoners who sympathized with his aims.

The first Indian converted was Hobbamock, "who was transported with great wonderment of the power the English had with their God," because when they praved to Him for rain, it did rain, and so he concluded to join them and their God. This, however, was before Eliot began his work, and for many years little seems to have been done toward Christianizing the Indians. When Eliot did begin to urge it, the Indian met him with the question:

"If Christianity be so necessary, why for so many years have you done nothing in proving it to us?"

In 1649 an Act of Parliament was passed, intended to promote the spread of the Christian Gospel among the Indians. Considerable sums of money were raised for the purpose, both here and in Old England, and Eliot was enabled to organize his Indian Church at Natick in 1651.

In 1674 the praying Indians numbered about three thousand six hundred, scattered in various settlements. But few of the number were admitted to communion, however, for most of them seemed incapable of comprehending the real significance of the rite.

One of the hardest things with which Eliot had to contend was the uncontrollable appetite of the Indians for firewater, with which the baser element among the whites kept them supplied. The chiefs opposed the new religion; one of them saying: "For what reason? Let me see your religion makes you better than us; then we will try it."

With his work among the Indians, Eliot kept up his duties in Roxbury. His translation of the Bible, the New Testament of 1661, and the Old Testament of 1663; of which second editions were printed in 1680, 1685, surely deserve a place in any account of the Puritan Literature of New England. To show the difficulty of making the first translation, it is told that when Eliot read to the Indians, and described the verse in the Old Testament, "The mother of Sisera cried through the lattice," and they gave him the word for lattice, he afterwards discovered that it read: "The mother of Sisera cried through the Eelpot," that being as near as the Indian language could come to the word lattice.

The best of the Indian Captivities narratives, at least the most graphic and interesting, is the narrative of Mary Rowlandson, first printed at Cambridge in 1682, and reprinted the same year in London, attracting much attention both here and abroad.

"On the tenth of February, 1675," writes Mrs. Rowlandson, "Came the Indians with great numbers upon Lancaster: Their first coming was about Sunrising; hearing the noise of some guns, we looked out; several houses were burning and the smoke ascending to Heaven.... Now is the dreadful hour come, that I have often heard of, but now mine eyes see it.... Then I took my children to go forth and leave the house: but as soon as we came to the door and appeared, the Indians shot so thick that the bulletts rattled against the house as if one had taken a Handfull of Stones and threw them so that we were fain to give back.

"No sooner were we out of the House but my Brother-in-law fell down dead, whereat the Indians scornfully shouted and were presently upon him, stripping off his clothes, the bullets flying thick, one went through my side, and the same through the bowels and hand of my dear Child in my arms. One of my elder Sister's Children named William had then his Leg broken, which the Indians perceiving they knocked him on head.... Now away we must go

with those Barbarous Creatures, with our bodies wounded and bleeding and our hearts no less than our bodies."

Mrs. Rowlandson's wounded child died soon after she was taken into captivity, and Mrs. Rowlandson herself was ransomed in May, after a wandering captivity that led her to some twenty places in Massachusetts and New Hampshire. The last encampment was at the southern end of Wachusett Lake, Princeton, Massachusetts, where one may visit today the granite ledge near the Westminster line, called Redemption Rock. Here the late Senator George F. Hoar had an inscription cut to commemorate the agreement between the Indians and John Hoar for the ransom of Mrs. Rowlandson.

Mrs. Rowlandson nearly starved at times during her captivity. "Then I went into another wigwam," she writes, where they were boyling Corn and Beans, which was a lovely sight to see, but I could not get a taste thereof. Then I went to another wigwam, where there were two of the English children, the squaw was boyling Horses feet, then she cut me off a little piece and gave one of the English children a piece also. Being very hungry I had quickly eat up mine, but the child could not bite it, it was so tough and sinewy, but lay sucking, gnawing, chewing, and slabbering of it in the mouth and hand.

"Then I took it of the child and eat it myself and savory it was to my taste.... Then I went home to my mistress's wigwam; and they told me I disgraced my master with begging and if I did so any more, they would knock me in head: I told them they had as good knock me in head as starve me to death."

Cotton Mather was a prodigious worker, if production counts for anything. quantity preached thousands of sermons and published three hundred and eighty-three pamphlets or books. In his writings as in his sermons Cotton Mather tried hard to bring New England back to the Puritan ideal of godliness. This was the purpose of his great work, the "Magnalia Christi Americana: or the Ecclesiastieal History of New England" (1702) which treats of the planting of New England, of the lives of great magistrates and divines, Harvard College, the New England Churches, "wonderful provinces" (including cases of witchcraft), and the "Wars of the Lord" by which he meant the struggles with Quakers, Anabaptists, Indians, and other disturbers of the peace of the Puritan elect. It is not very amusing reading, is wordy and mostly dull, except for anecdotes that the author delights to insert in the prosy narrative, for Cotton Mather, it must be confessed, did gloat over stories of death-bed scenes, tales of witchcraft, Indian atrocities and the hysterical outrages of the persecuted Quakers.

In Jonathan Edwards, in the eighteenth century, the Puritan genius reached its height. This New England preacher and writer is considered one of the great philosophical intellects of all time. Jonathan Edwards was the preacher of the great awakening and religious revival of the Connecticut valley in the middle of the eighteenth century. He was missionary to the Indians near Stockbridge in the Berk-

shires; he was president of Princeton for a brief time before his death. In the popular mind Jonathan Edwards is merely the terrible preacher of hell fire and infant damnation. That idea, however, presents only the less attractive side of the picture. He was a mystic, an idealist and a poet, and a man of far above ordinary intellectual ability.

His greatest book was his "Freedom of the Will," which has been acknowledged "the one large contribution which America has made to the deeper philosophic thought of the world." He is one of the few American writers whose fame is world-wide.

Daniel Webster said, "'The Freedom of the Will' by Jonathan Edwards is the greatest achievement of the human intellect." Edwards' "Freedom of the Will" was used in American colleges as a textbook within the memory of men still living.

It is easy, in considering the Puritan literature of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, to look only upon the uncouth, grotesque side of it, to see it as merely amusing, but it should not be so interpreted. If literature is the sincere expression of the life of a people, then the things left by our Puritan forefathers for us to read are really literature, for they are sincere, and they do express the life of a strong, devout, single-minded people, capable of founding, as they did, lasting institutions.

Progressive Education and the Teacher-Training Institution

A Study in Colonial Community Life

BY MARY HARDEN, HORACE MANN SCHOOL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, AND CLARA SCRANTON, RUSSELL SAGE COLLEGE, TROY, N. Y.

IMPORTANCE OF PROGRESSIVE TEACHER-TRAINING POLICIES

During the past decade there has been considerable discussion centering around the term progressive education. In some of these discussions and speeches the normal schools and teachers' colleges have been severely criticized, and rightly so, for neglecting to train teachers adequately for practical classroom situations in the more progressive schools. It is the purpose of this article to show how one normal school has endeavored to prepare its teachers so that they can more easily interpret and put into practice a worth while educational philosophy.

There has been a commendable and growing tendency to select subject-matter in terms of children's needs and interest during the period of development in progressive education. If the pupils have important individual and group problems to solve, it is quite natural that they should turn to available material to aid them in working out their problems. Such a procedure in classroom instruction calls for a type of subject-matter and teaching technique almost wholly unknown in the schools of yesterday. If teacher-training institutions hope to prepare teachers adequately for the schools of today they must, in their professionalized curricula, provide

The extent to which normal schools and teachers' colleges need to modify their present curricula is to a large degree determined by the personnel of the student body. A survey of the needs of the state normal schools and teachers' colleges of this country would probably show a great need for a broader cultural background among the students. A recent study indicates that in this particular normal school 43.8 per cent. of the students are children of foreignborn parents.² The majority of the parents of the entire student body are employed in factories. Such

opportunities for a greater enrichment of student ex-

facts bring out very clearly the need for school activities which emphasize American life in its broadest cultural aspects.

INITIATION OF A TEACHER-TRAINING UNIT

Recently a social studies class in the State Normal School at New Haven, Connecticut, was discussing the origin of Thanksgiving Day in the United States. Although this group of students had studied the story of Thanksgiving in the various grades of the public schools, they began to seek more authentic information about this great national holiday. After a brief study, new aspects of the significance of this holiday became evident. One of the outstanding surprises was the fact that the first Thanksgiving celebration was one of New England's first community gatherings. The interest stimulated by the community aspect of Thanksgiving Day initiated a unit of work on Colonial Community Life.

VITAL READING FOR TEACHERS IN TRAINING

From their investigation of the First Thanksgiving, the class realized that they knew very little about the people who lived in New England in colonial times. This new interest, centering around the life of the people, led the students to an intensive study of Colonial Community Life (1620-1750) in New England as compared with present-day community life in New England. The class in its conferences decided that in order to gather authentic information about the early inhabitants of New England, they must organize their problem for working purposes. They also realized that they must seek many sources for its solution. In beginning this study the students used the type of material with which they were most familiar. From their readings in the ordinary high school and college textbooks they were soon convinced that they needed material which would describe more adequately the period of life which they were dis-This decision led to a reading of concussing.

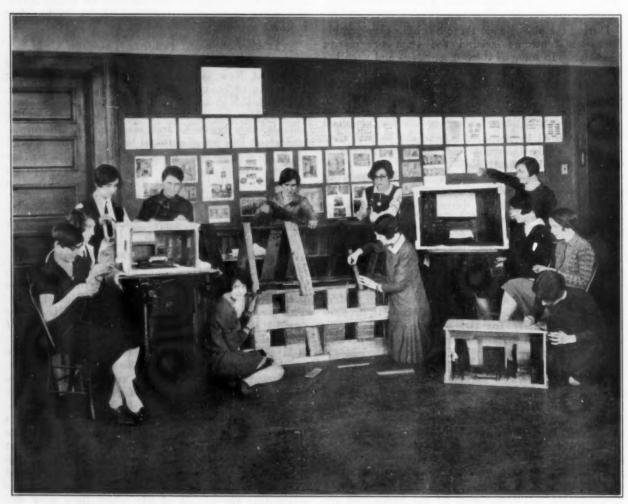
temporary and other accounts of colonial life. Among the references used were: Bradford, William, History of Plymouth Plantation; Dow, G. F., The Arts and Crafts in New England; Lockwood, L. V., Colonial Furniture in America; Earle, A. M., Home Life in Colonial Days; Rawson, M. N., Candle Days.

The reading of this new type of material revealed many facts about the homes, food, clothing, and recreation of the early New England pioneers. This reading also served to open up to the group the possibilities of integrating social studies and art subject-matter. It was pointed out to the students that the types of houses, furniture, utensils, textiles, and clothing of the colonists had an art as well as an historical significance. It was further noted that pictures, drawings, and actual objects helped to clarify facts and to increase knowledge as well as reading. In their reading of the contemporary accounts they soon discovered that the natural geographical environment of New England presented to the colonies a serious problem of adjustment. Through a study of the natural environment of the surroundings of the colonists, the class discovered that many of the vital and pressing problems of these early people were

concerned with their immediate personal needs. In order for these pioneers of colonial times to exist it was necessary for them to secure food, shelter, and clothing. The fact that the early settlers were able to live because of their ability to adapt themselves to an entirely new physical environment, led the group to appreciate the close relation existing between modern man and his present-day surroundings. In a short time the students realized that these early pioneers lived together and participated in community affairs much in the same manner as people do today.

COMMUNITY HISTORY IN RELATION TO UNIT

They also found that many of the everyday happenings of the early communities contributed to the present progress of these same communities today. The people of colonial times as well as the people of today had many serious and pressing problems to solve. In the early times many of the community activities centered around the commons or local green. It was here that the male inhabitants of the colonies met to discuss the social, religious, and political welfare of the community. New England's present-day town meeting had its beginning in the desire of the colo-



Building a Colonial House and Interiors

nists to govern wisely. In many instances, the attractive colonial house by the New England roadside reflects the life of the people of early times in its style of architecture and furnishings as well as life today. The old and almost forgotten waterwheel, found in a few of the old New England towns, is an indication of change that has been made by the modern textile industry.

The fact that the early people of New England engaged in activities which are of interest in present-day life led the students to set up the following general objective for study, namely: To gain knowledge and to develop an appreciation of early community life as related to present-day community life in New England.

The class decided that in order to appreciate fully the relation of the activities of early community life in past times to the activities of present-day community life it would be necessary for them to extend and organize the reading that they were doing. This decision led to the first activities of the unit:

- 1. Searching for suitable reading material.
- Determining reliability of contemporary accounts.
- 3. Studying historical writers for the purpose of determining their standing among historians.
- 4. Making of bibliographies.
- Collecting of data on such topics as houses, furnishings, food, clothing, occupations, education, arts and crafts, religious and social customs.

Types of Local Historical Material

Early in the study, the students realized that much information and a greater appreciation of early colonial life in New England might be secured outside of books. It soon became apparent to them that they were daily passing houses that were a part of the period of history in which they were interested. The close contact of the class to material things of the period led to another type of activity, the excursion.



The Colonial Kitchen, Accessories and Costumes

Many students made excursions to old houses in the vicinity of New Haven, to antique collections, and to the museums. These trips became a part of the regular unit of work. The excursions were taken in some instances by groups, and at other times by individuals.

In the art class, the excursions, discussions, readings, collecting of illustrative material, drawing, designing, and constructing centered around the buildings, furnishings, and clothing of the colonists. The class decided that the art work should develop along the lines of a colonial exhibit. Such things as real colonial costumes, pewter ware, dishes, pieces of furniture, samplers, and warming pans were collected for a temporary school museum. The class planned and constructed a fireplace wall of a colonial kitchen to be used as a background for the museum. This background was also to be used for stage scenery. Simple pieces of furnishings for stage property such as a chest, settle, braided rug, and andirons were made.

ORGANIZING THE MATERIAL

Group conferences were held at the regular social studies class period. In these conferences the students talked over the results of their readings and excursions. The discussions showed very clearly that this group of many nationalities was actually becoming acquainted with the historical realia of their immediate surroundings. In some instances busy Jewish and Italian fathers and mothers were sent on jaunts out to nearby communities to see if they could find houses, churches, or antique shops that might help the students in their work. If their trips proved successful, the students then planned to visit the places found. In a busy program of a normal school the students conserved much time by encouraging the aid of their families. Incidentally, these young women were doing an excellent piece of work in Americanization. In one instance an antique dealer was prevailed upon to loan a number of pieces from his collection to the collection that the students were assembling for the school museum.

Interest on the part of some students developed to the point where they not only sent to the Essex Museum, Metropolitan Museum, and similar places for illustrative material, but they took week-end trips to these places of historical interest. Two students had blueprints made of a Cape Cod house. This they built in miniature and furnished after they had collected much material on Cape Cod houses. The shingled walls of the house were constructed out of strawberry boxes. The parents of these students owned a shore lot in common, and the miniature house was to serve as a model for a summer home.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND ART

The work in the art class began to show the results of an enriched background. The art activities began with the original problem, the origin of Thanksgiving, and continued with every phase of the study.

The students were also particularly interested in adapting their art work to the needs of the elementary school.

Some of the art activities were as follows:

- Creative illustrating, with crayon and paint, of early colonial scenes such as the first Thanksgiving.
- 2. Drawing of some of the best examples of furniture, clothing, rugs, iron, pewter, brass, and copper ware for reference.
- Sketching objects at the museum and houses in the locality of New Haven.
- 4. Group construction of a life-size colonial kitchen (modelled after the original kitchen in the House of Seven Gables) to be used for the background of a colonial exhibit or play. This construction included the making of a settle, chest, andirons, cradle, rug, dolls, life-sized costumes for the setting.
- Class discussion of beauty of design, workmanship, materials, and uses of the many objects of colonial life.
- Group construction of miniature colonial houses and interiors.
- Designing and making of booklet covers for notes and materials developed in the social studies class.
- Designing of posters to advertise the exhibit to the school.
- Arranging and mounting drawings and illustrations for the school exhibit.

All of the work in the art class was made as original and creative as possible. In the illustrating and the designing of book covers and posters freedom of ideas and originality in design were encouraged. A study of design was made in considering the contours and arrangement of patterns in colonial furniture, pewter, samplers, rugs, and other articles. The colors used in colonial costumes and textiles proved to be a very interesting study. The students were under the impression that the costume of the Pilgrim was always dull black or somber gray. Reading and accurate observation brought out the fact that the plums, blues, and browns were favorite colors for many of the colonial costumes. The class also learned of the rich colors and patterns that were later introduced into the homes by colonial merchants and traders through the importation of velvets, turkey work, dishes, and India prints. The influence of the prevailing English styles upon the architecture and the furniture of the later colonists introduced them to period furniture such as Jacobean and Georgian, and to designers such as Chippendale and Hepplewhite. The industrial phase of the work encouraged the consideration of types of material, workmanship, and utility in any industrial arts product.

Appreciation as well as technical skill in rendering developed throughout the study. Appreciation came from an increase in knowledge of art objects and their characteristics, contact with good examples of colonial art, and experience in designing, constructing, and arranging.

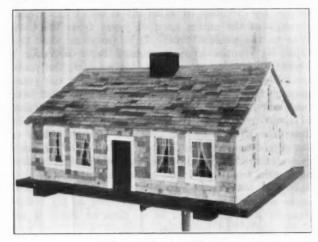
The result of the work in both the social studies and art classes showed the students the necessity for acquiring a rich cultural background of information for effective work in the elementary grades of progressive schools. They were encouraged to seek for facts that would give a reliable picture of the life of the people at this particular time. Constant use was made of historical materials found in the vicinity of New Haven so that students would not be indifferent to the wealth of illustrative material close at hand. Units of work including related subject-matter from other fields were planned for future use in the training schools.

This activity showed the students the advantages of planning units of work for consecutive related lessons instead of planning for unrelated individual lessons. In working out the units of work the students were using their practice teaching experiences so that they would not neglect to utilize the interests of young children in such a study.

Later during the period of student teaching in the training schools, many of the students adapted phases of the unit to actual teaching situations.

VALUES AS SEEN BY STUDENTS

When the work of the unit was completed, the students listed the benefits which they had received

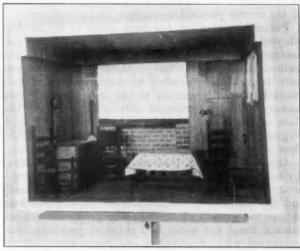


Miniature Cape Cod House

from the study. The following outcomes were reported:

- Growth in appreciation of good architectural design.
- A better understanding of the life of the people in this period of history.
- 3. An appreciation of the varying skills and abilities of the members of the group.
- 4. An appreciation and understanding of antiques.
- 5. An increased appreciation of immediate environment.
- Pleasure in evaluating art in interior decoration.
- Increased knowledge of available subject-matter for solving problems.
- 8. Ability to recognize furniture of the New England Colonial Period (1620-1750).
- Ability to select visual aids for teaching purposes.

- Ability to select authentic data for construction work.
- Ability to select, evaluate, and organize supplementary reading material.
- 12. Ability to appreciate the reality of colonial life.
- Ability to collect and evaluate a working bibliography.



Miniature Construction of a Colonial Room

- 14. Ability to budget time for working purposes.
- 15. Ability to apportion work among the group.
- Ability to evaluate methods and procedures used in developing new units of work.
- Ability to collect and evaluate materials for school exhibits and permanent school museums.
- Ability to appreciate the relation of presentday life to life in the past.
- Ability to adapt teaching materials to specific classroom situations.
- Skill in the use of materials such as books, maps, pictures, paints.
- 21. An interest in travel.
- 22. A desire for more knowledge of colonial people.
- A feeling of confidence in planning and executing a project involving construction work.
- 24. Skill in using related subject-matter.

More General Values

In summarizing, it may be stated that the purpose of the above type of training for students preparing to teach in the elementary school is fourfold, namely:

- 1. To give an understanding of current practices in education.
- To stimulate an interest in educational activities which influence the behavior of the child.
- To provide opportunities for a greater enrichment of student experience.
- To develop an appreciation for the value of the contributions of early American peoples to present-day life.

¹The authors of this article were instructors in the State Normal School at New Haven, Conn., at the time this material was developed.

² Meader, J. L., Normal School Education in Connecticut, Part Three, page 84.

Larger Units for History Study

BY PROFESSOR W. L. WALLACE, IOWA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, CEDAR FALLS

A casual survey of textbooks prepared for use in American History classes in the high school reveals a characteristic plan of organization, suggests a method of procedure, and raises a query as to the advisability of the course pursued by writers on the subject.

Particular attention has been given to the method adopted by writers as they deal with the period following the American Civil War. Generally, the method is as follows: two or three general divisions have been made according to time. The first unit studied is usually carried to the last decade of the century. The second unit carries the work to the close of the World War. The last part of the work is given to a summary of the happenings since the close of the War.

Among the topics that are discussed in the first division are those that are involved in the development of the West; in the construction of railroads and the methods of control that were brought into use; in the growth of the laboring group into an organized force for social and political pressure. Interspersed with these topics are others that pick up the fragments relative to the incidents of election, the enactment of disassociated laws, and happenings of a political nature. After these problems of the first period have been studied those of the next period are treated in much the same manner. This does not mean that identically the same problems are studied, for it is true that some of the questions of the first period may disappear entirely. Some of them may be present, but not in the same intensity in which they were found in the early period.

The result of this type of procedure is many times unsatisfactory. It may be said that the student is called upon to make three beginnings and three summarizations of the questions under discussion since 1865. By the time he has reached the close of the year's work he has, in the consideration of the problems of the post-Civil War period, been called upon to interpret the course of development, shift his attention from one matter to another quite unrelated one, and then come to a rational conclusion in each of the situations studied. Data that should have been kept as a unit have been scattered so that the vision of the student has been unnecessarily obscured.

One may offer the defense that it is necessary to deal with the smaller units of time, so that a better idea may be formed regarding the difficulties arising during any particular year, presidential term, or decade. It must be conceded, however, that no text presents all the topics that deal with the complexities of American life, and it is impossible, accordingly, for any one, even an adult, to form a complete and true estimate of the nature of the life and problems of any particular period. In recent times, for instance, the country has just experienced the activities of a president-elect in his Good-Will tour of

South and Central America. At the same time a great effort has been made to introduce the American public to the beauties of music and to develop in them an earnest desire for a culture not of a material nature. Of these two movements, it is probably true that one will be mentioned by the writers of the future, while the other will be ignored. No attempt is made here to estimate the worth of either of these. That which is emphasized the more may mean less in the life of the American citizen than the other means. Under the circumstances, it would be impossible for any one to claim that he can form a correct estimate of the thought and life of any single year or small group of years.

With this in mind, it is submitted that it may be a more reasonable plan for developing the power of analysis and promoting sane judgment to disregard the small or short unit arrangement that is customarily followed and make, instead, a survey of the topics as questions of the longer period. For example, the problem of railroads is one that extends throughout the entire span of years from the Civil War to the present time. It is proposed that this topic be studied as a continued topic covering a period of seventy years. In this manner, the problems that have developed in the course of the years may be kept in mind; the varied methods that have been tried can be studied and compared; the value of the regulations that have been in vogue can be determined; and, by the time the student comes to the period in which he lives, he should have a clearer grasp of the issue and of the methods of control that

have been tried and found inadequate and those that

have met with some degree of success. He should

be in a position, therefore, to proceed in his reflec-

tions as a more rational being than he could if his

observations had been disjointed by a division into

three units.

It is not to be expected that he will become an expert in any one line. That would be unreasonable and undesirable. But a truly scientific method of procedure could be adopted, and rational conclusions could be reached in the topics considered. It might be that, in the long run, more could be studied than can be under the present time-unit plan so generally adopted by textbook writers and, inferentially, by teachers who find it much easier to follow the text plan, as outlined, than to strike out into unblazed paths.

It is proposed, therefore, that the writer and the teacher should adopt a course wherein the units may be extended even so far as to cover the entire national period, unless the limitations as set by faculty adoptions or curriculum arrangements forbid such a procedure. How much clearer would be the student's understanding of the drift in American foreign relations if these were treated as a unit from the time of

Washington to the present date! It must be admitted that foreign relations and developments are not pursued without regard to internal affairs. Home problems may determine the course of national diplomacy. It would be necessary, therefore, to have a carefully developed group of questions arranged, so that the first studied would lead into those taken up later.

It is not to be expected that perfection is to be attained. It is only suggested that a more comprehensive understanding of the problems of the country

can be gotten by this plan than by the one that adheres more closely to the chronologic presentation of facts. Without sustained sequence there is a lessened demand made on the development of judgment. Memory is involved, but judgment is more essential for intelligent citizenship than memory. If a topical procedure, even through a period of a century or more, can be used more efficaciously for the development of that power, then the query is, Why not try that plan?

The Unit System of Instruction

As Used in the Albemarle County Schools, Virginia

BY R. E. SWINDLER, CRITIC TEACHER-SUPERVISOR, DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

While the unit plan of instruction has many identical features wherever used, there are some unique features in the Albemarle County plan that need emphasis, and these, as well as a brief statement of the general and common characteristics of the method, will be briefly set forth in this explanatory statement.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

The following four guiding principles especially are emphasized in the social studies: that self-activity must characterize all learning; that only those activities should be selected that contribute to the learning product sought; that the learning process is cumulative, each new learning emerging from former learnings, and being an individual matter for each learner, the emphasis being placed on individual differences and needs; and that the need for "organization of learning responses becomes more acute as the mass of facts, relations, skills, and attitudes accumulates."

APPLYING THESE GOVERNING PRINCIPLES

The writer feels that no better method of explaining these principles could be employed than to quote from the County Supervisor and the supervising principals in the schools concerned:

"The unit plan sets up a significant understanding, habit or skill, or attitude which will serve to organize a comprehensive aspect of the subject being taught, as a focal point of teaching and learning effort.

"It then selects the subject-matter of the course which properly may be made to contribute to the product sought, and arranges this subject-matter into blocks, according to contributory learning it best promotes. Finally, the learning exercises through which these contributory learnings are to be achieved are selected, and directions are drawn for carrying out the activities involved in the learning exercises.

"We achieve both pupil activity and recognition of individual differences through mimeographed guide sheets, which are placed in the hands of the pupils. These guide sheets make definite prescriptions for the three levels of achievement adapted to slow, average, or bright pupils. Working directions, which are thought to be reasonably adequate, are also

given in the guide sheets. Pupils may, therefore, work at their own rates and upon subject-matter adapted to their ability. Varied interests are also provided for the higher levels. In the lower levels, adaptation to ability or interests is made through supplementary or alternate assignments to individual pupils in case of serious learning difficulty.

"Good teaching today recognizes three fundamental concepts: (1) That any course must be organized around a limited number of core-concepts, the endpoints or mastery of which will result in a changed student behavior or attitude toward them; (2) that the accomplishment of these core-concepts comes out of self-activity of the student, confronted with situations which give an opportunity for doing; (3) that all cannot do at the same rate or in the same way, and hence there must be provision for individual differences....

"Some teachers (Albemarle County schools) find it desirable to precede the unit with a short exploratory test, either objective or oral, to determine to what extent the subject-matter of the unit is already familiar to the individual members of the class....A general overview of the unit by the teacher immediately follows. This overview, the length of which may vary, brings the pupil's attention to the important phases of the unit and stimulates pupil interest in the topics to be studied. Pupils find it advantageous to take notes on the overview, either in a regular notebook or on the margins of the mimeographed sheet. When the overview is completed, pupils are requested to begin individual study, using the unit outline as a guide.

"At this point in the procedure the teacher is converted into a director of study. He leaves his position in front of the class and moves about among the pupils, giving assistance to anyone who is in difficulty. After the work has progressed for a brief period, certain common difficulties are quite likely to appear. At appropriate times the teacher considers these common difficulties with the specific groups involved, thus saving time and labor. The consideration of difficulties common to pupil groups may take

the nature of asking well-chosen questions, which will lead pupils to a solution of their own problems, of citing pupils to materials which will furnish the needed information, or of presenting certain facts which are pertinent to further pupil progress

"The classroom is a study laboratory, where each pupil freely makes use of any needed material, keeping notes on significant topics, writing up special

reports, and unifying summaries

As soon as the pupil completes the first achievement level, the teacher checks over the work to see if it has been done in a satisfactory manner....There is no rigid rule for determining when the unit shall

be brought to a close

"A general high school supervisor, where such an official is employed, cannot suffice entirely.... For the schools of Albemarle County, the units are prepared by the five special supervisors of instruction, under the supervision of the county high school supervisor. These officials are available through the co-operative program set up by the school officials of Albemarle County, the City of Charlottesville, and the University of Virginia. The superior teachers of the county are organized into committees to assist the supervisors in the selection and organization of materials of instruction for some of the courses..."2

The above quotations cover the main essentials of the unit method as it is carried out in the Charlottesville High School and the Albemarle County schools.

RESULTS

During the 1929-1930 session of the schools in Albemarle County the following two-class experiments were carried out: in one school one teacher carried on two classes in the social studies at the same time, in the same room; namely, American History and Problems of American Democracy; another, two classes in Latin; a third, two classes in English. The results, from objective tests given, tend strongly to indicate that accomplishment in these combinationseparate classes compares favorably with that of corresponding separate classes in the county school system. For instance, in the social science classes a careful record of results, as measured by objective and standard tests, was kept throughout the year, five comparable high schools in the county being measured in this field. For the first semester the high school offering the two courses simultaneously led the schools in both the American History and Problems of Democracy courses; and in the second semester it likewise led in the Problems course, and fell below only one of the schools in the American History achievement.

The administrators of this system of schools have unanimously decided to extend this unit system to all the courses and schools of the county offering social studies, science, and English courses. This will make the vast majority of all the work done in the county

carried on according to the unit plan.

In the second part of the present article is given a sample unit in the course in Problems of American Democracy.

A UNIT IN PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

INTRODUCTORY EXPLANATION

Form and Features of the Social Science Unit.
 Name or title of the Unit:

 To indicate: A large unit of subject-matter, with related and naturally constituent parts.
 To show naturally constituent relationship to the

b. To show natural and essential relationship to the course as a whole and the other units in particular.

c. To indicate a major problem of our present-day democracy, and suggest the problem method of approach.

2. The objectives of the Unit:

a. To conform to the general objectives of the course. b. To indicate the specific things to be learned.

3. The Bibliography—suitable for laboratory methods.

5. The Minimum Assignment (First Achievement Level): to be mastered by all pupils, and to serve

as a basis for the test at the close of the unit. Directed study period of several days.

6. The Advanced Assignments, Second and Third (or "A") Assignment Levels.

 Summary and Review, including oral reports, or debates, etc., by the pupils (especially for "B" and "A" levels), in addition to the summary conducted by the teacher.

8. The Test: Usually an objective test, to cover the essential points, to test the learning accomplished.

Critical Weekly Reading Reports, handed in on a form prepared for the purpose, to test the character and values of reading being done as the unit pro-

gresses (one report each week).

Note—The unit may sometimes have two or more major divisions, in order to develop evaluation and conclusions by comparisons and contrasts.

II. Steps and Procedure in Mastery of the Unit. 1. Introducing the Unit—two phases:

a. Getting the problem clearly before the class.
b. Preliminary testing—finding what the pupils individually already know about the unit, in order to know what is yet to be learned by each.

(Class may participate orally in much of this.)

2. Presentation of the Unit, or "Overview," by the teacher. Covers very briefly all the essential points of the unit and furnishes chief basis for the written work to be handed in by the pupil at close of period

of directed study.

3. Directed Study Period (5 to 10 days), with the classroom library and other materials as a laboratory, for each pupil to use at his own rate of procedure under direction of the teacher. (Group discussion to be engaged in only when some common difficulty or interest affects the vast majority of the pupils at the same time.)

4. Organization and Completion of the Unit Assignment: Includes the write-up of the unit in notebook, preparation of outlines for oral work; floor talks,

debates, making of graphs, etc.

5. Recitation-oral and written (includes unit test). Summary and review.

A sample unit is here taken for illustrative purposes:

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. UNIT VI MALADJUSTMENT AND SOCIAL EVILS

A. Introduction

In the following quotation a claim and a challenge are put before us:

"Why do we have so much poverty in the United States? We are the greatest nation, the wealthiest nation in the world. And yet millions of the American people are below the poverty line. What are the causes of such conditions? Many people are dependent upon someone else for a living, yet there is plenty of money. America is a land of mil-lionaires, especially since the World War. Still, we have more paupers since the World War than before that great catastrophe.

"Charities and other relief agencies are becoming more numerous and rendering greater effects, still they are un-able to keep pace with the need. Defectives are increasing each year, yet we claim to have a better understanding and better methods of treatment of these evils than the people of former times.

"Crime is increasing. It has been said that the United States is the greatest law-making and greatest law-breaking nation in the world. Why do these evils persist? What can be done to help the situation?"—I rom a student of present American conditions, in especial reference to national investigations and press comment.

We want to try to answer these and similar questions during the study of this unit. What, for instance, does prohibition have to do with the crime situation in the United States today? Can you answer from any other standpoint than mere prejudice?

B. Objectives (Things To Be Learned)

I. General:

- 1. To develop an interest in and an understanding of some of the most pressing social evils, through a study of their history and consequences.
- 2. To be able to form intelligent opinions as a basis for doing our part as far as possible in lessening these maladjustments and evils.

II. Specific:

- To learn the leading causes of poverty, dependency, defectives' delinquencies and crime in society.
 To learn the relation of these various factors, one
- to the other.
- 3. To appreciate the seriousness and difficulties involved in dealing with these social maladjustments.
- 4. To become acquainted with the most effective measures and means so far known in dealing with and relieving these social dangers and burdens.
 5. To be able to arrive at sensible and well-reasoned convictions with respect to these problems as they effect local conditions and problems.
 6. To appreciate the monetary and social costs of the
- To appreciate the monetary and social costs of the conditions dealt with in this unit.
- To master the fundamental facts necessary to the accomplishment of the above aims.

III. Time for the unit, 18 days.

C. Thought Questions

- 1. What is meant by objective and subjective causes of poverty? Name some.

 2. When is a person considered to be dependent?

 3. What is the extent of poverty in the United States?

 4. When should charity be given?

- 5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of extending charity to many people?

6. Is poverty increasing?

- 7. How does defective government increase crime?
 8. Why does crime persist with the advance of civilization? 9. How has the point of view towards the criminal
- changed? 10. Contrast feeble-mindedness with insanity.
- 11. What is the duty of society regarding the feebleminded?

These questions can serve as a basis for oral discussion and review.

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E. Outline of the Unit

D. Assignment: First Achievement Level.

- I. The Problem of Poverty.
- A. The Nature of Poverty.

 1. What is poverty?

 2. What is the extent of:

 - a. Poverty. b. Pauperism.
 - 3. Historical treatment of poverty.
 - a. Change of attitude in late years.

 - b. Charity. c. Relief taken over by the state.
 - d. American treatment of poverty.
 - (1) "Poorhouses" or homes for the in-
 - digent.
 - (2) What are the conditions of "poor-houses?" (3) What advances have been made in
 - recent years?
 - (4) What kind of people should be sent to these homes or farms?
 - (5) What are some of the difficulties in running such institutions?
 - e. Has poverty always existed? Why, or
 - how?
 - f. Will it always exist? Why?

B. Causes of Poverty.

- Objective causes of poverty:
 1. Insufficient natural resources.
- 2. Unhealthful climatic conditions.
- 3. Defective government.
 - a. Bad systems of land tenure, as in many countries of Europe.
 - b. Unwise taxation.

4. Unemployment.

- a. It is often a matter of poor distribution and maladjustment.
- b. What are some other results of unemployment?
- 5. Low wages: How much is due to the employer and how much to the laborer himself?
- 6. Irregularity of employment and seasonal work.
 - a. What are some examples and what is the remedy?

- 7. Immobility of labor.

 - a. Why is labor hard to move?b. What kind of labor is easiest to move?
- 8. Unhealthful and dangerous occupations.
 - a. Name some of these.
 - b. What has been done to correct the evils?
 - c. Relation of wages to dangerous and unhealthful occupations.
- 9. New machinery.
 - a. Reduces the number of employees.
- b. Good and evil effects of labor-saving machinery.
- Changes in values of money.
 Why does a sudden rise in prices make life harder for the working man?
- 11. Defects in education system.
 - a. Illiterate and uneducated persons are at a disadvantage in life's struggle.
 - b. What are some remedies for educational defects?
 - Question: Has the benefit of education been exaggerated?
- 12. Defective courts.
 - a. Delay in decisions.
 - b. The poor man often does not get justice? Wealth and judicial decisions.
 - e. Present study and criticism of our judicial system.
- 13. Unfavorable surroundings.
 - a. Living near a degenerate neighborhood or where one does not come in contact with real industry and enterprise.
 - b. Political conditions in cities and their relation to the individual's environment.
- War, famine, and disaster.
 a. Effects of the World War.

 - b. Property destroyed.
 - Many men crippled—effect on families and communities.

 - d. Debts—extent; also the tax burden. e. Parts of the world where famine and pestilence are found.
 - f. Means of lessening accidents.
 - g. How to protect the laboring man against himself.
- h. "Hard Times," unemployment, etc., and the best means of preventing such.
 C. Subjective Causes of Poverty.
- - 1. What are subjective causes of poverty?
 - 2. Diseases.
 - a. Surroundings.
 - b. Lack of food.
 - c. What are some of the results of diseases upon poverty of the people?
 - 3. Poor judgment.
 - a. Some people have the ability to decide wisely in their undertakings, while some do not.
 - b. Some people seem always to get "left."
 - 4. Intemperance.
 - a. Alcohol.
 - b. Effects of prohibition.
 - c. Intemperance in other things.
 - 5. Immorality.
 - a. Weakens vitality and efficiency and so decreases earnings.
 - b. It is joined with other causes, such as poor judgment and intemperance.
 - c. How much determined by heredity? To environment?
 - - a. Fathers often leave their wives and children when times become too hard, or be-cause of immorality, low wages, and crime.
 - b. How can this be prevented or lessened?

- 7. Crime.
 - a. Many persons rendered unemployable by

 - b. Lack of work causes families to suffer.
 c. Families left in a bad condition, when father is sent to prison.
 - d. Justice of the principle of putting in prison the breadwinner of the family, where it is impossible for him to support his family.
- 8. Lack of will-power and stamina in certain individuals.
- a. Is there any remedy for this class?
- II. Dependency.
 - A. Causes.
 - 1. Defective Government-show how.
 - 2. Unemployment—examples.
 - 3. Low wages-how to be prevented?
 - 4. Seasonal work-how made more steady and permanent.
 - Unfavorable surroundings-community responsibility in this.
 - 6. Accidents—campaigns and laws against accidents.
 - 7. Famine and disaster.
 - 8. Desertion.
 - 9. Mental and moral deficiency.
 - B. What is the relation of dependency and poverty?
 - a. How much is dependency hereditary, and, therefore, to what degree preventable?

 b. What of the possibility of eugenics in the
 - future?
- III. The Organization of Charity.
 - A. What is Charity
 - B. History of Charity.
 1. In early times.

 - 2. In the Middle Ages.
 3. The Poor Law in England.
 - 4. American treatment of charity.
 - a. Indoor and outdoor relief.
 - b. What is the difference between them and what is the relative value of each?
 5. What is the modern trend in respect to
 - charity?
 - a. What is the key word for future charitable work? b. What is the character of the viewpoint of
 - modern charity?
 - 6. Consult American Legion as to local conditions.
 - C. The Almshouse.
 - 1. What is the condition of our almshouses?
 - 2. What has been the condition of almshouses in the past?
 - 3. What are some of the difficulties in running the almshouse?
 - 4. What are some needed reforms?5. Evils and possibilities in management.

 - D. Other Relief Agencies.1. The Church—is this the best agency?
 - 2. Medical charities-free hospitals and dispensaries.
 3. Private associations.
 - - a. Advantages.
 - b. Disadvantages.
 - 4. Methods and service of the Red Cross, Salvation Army, etc.
 - E. Charity Organization.
 - 1. Methods and management.
 - 2. How does it work?
 - 3. Is it justifiable?
 - 4. Friendly visiting in the family.
 - 5. Treatment of the sick.
 - 6. Care of dependent children.
 - 7. Public vs. private charity. 8. The importance of "an ounce of prevention."

- 9. How to help dependents to "help them-
- 10. Charity and city politics—N. Y. City, e. g. 11. How much of charity is wasted today?

IV. Defectives.

Causes.

A. Physical Defectives.
1. The blind.

a. What is the extent of blindness?

b. Causes.

c. How are blind people treated?d. Education of the blind.

2. The deaf. a. Extent.

b. Causes.

c. How are deaf people treated?

3. Cripples-matter of prevention of accidents.

4. Effects of war.

5. Education and training of the deaf and cripples.

B. Mental Defectives. 1. Feeble-mindedness.

a. What is feeble-mindedness?

D. Idiots
 C. Imbeciles distinguish between them.

d. Morons.

e. Extent of feeble-mindedness.

- f. What is the relation between feeble-mindedness and crime, vice and poverty? g. What are some causes of feeble-minded-
- ness?

1. Treatment.

h. Its hereditary character.

i. Need of institutions.

. Defectives and eugenics.

2. The insane.

a. Causes.

b. How are they treated?

c. Segregating the various classes.

- d. Is insanity on the increase? Explain. C. What is the relation between defectives and
- D. What is the relation of artificial living and overstimulation to the problem of insanity?
- E. Possibilities in prevention and care of insanity.

V. The Problem of Crime.

A. What is crime?—past and present phases.

1. What is the relation of poverty and crime?

2. History of crime—brief survey.

a. In early times.

b. In modern times.

3. Change in social standards.

4. The different kinds of criminals. a. The instinctive or born criminal.

b. The habitual criminal.

c. The single offender.

d. The feeble-minded and insane criminal.

5. Extent of crime-compare U. S. with Europe. 6. Why does crime increase?

- 7. Cost of crime-money cost-social cost.
- 8. Condition in our cities, such as Chicago.

B. Causes of Crime.

1. Physical environment.

 a. Climate has a great deal to do with crime.
 b. Crimes against property increase in cold climates and are worse in winter than in summer.

2. Family demoralization.

a. The problem of disorganized homes.

b. Reform schools largely composed of chil-dren from disorganized homes.

3. Poverty.

a. How does poverty cause crime?

4. What is the effect of the density of population on crime?

a. Crime in cities.b. Crime in the country.

5. Industrial causes of crime.

a. Strikes, lockouts, etc.

6. Defective courts and penal system.

a. Many offenders escape punishment. b. Everyone thinks that if anyone can escape punishment he can.

7. Illiteracy.

a. Educated people not as likely to do wrong? Why? b. Education teaches respect for the law.

How?

8. Harmful social amusements.

a. Saloon, pool-ball, gambling house, etc. What others? "The underworld."

9. Degeneracy.

a. Feeble-mindedness is closely related to crime. How?

b. Insanity is related to crime. How?

- c. Some people too weak to resist tempta-tion. Why?
- d. About what age are the majority of criminals?
- Which sex leads in the number of criminals? Why is this true?

C. What kind of person is a criminal?

a. Goring, an English physician, after studying thousands of English prisoners, arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Criminals look practically like other

people.
They are inferior both physically and mentally.

Question: How would you describe the character of a criminal?

D. Treatment of the Criminal.
 1. History of the treatment of the criminal.

a. The theory of revenge.

- b. The theory of repression.c. The theory of reformation.

- d. The theory of prevention.
- e. A cross-section of the present treatment of the criminal.

2. Prison work.

- a. The contract system.

(a) Definition.(a) Fault of the system.

- b. The lease system.
 - How does this system work?
 What are the disadvantages?

c. The piece-price system.

1. What is the good quality in this system?

d. The public account system.

1. What is the part played by the state in this system?

2. How does this system work?

e. The public use system.

1. Advantages.

2. Manufacturing of desirable commodi-

f. Recent outbreaks in prisons and their causes, as in Colorado?

E. Juvenile Courts.

1. What are juvenile courts?

2. How do they work?

- 3. What has been their effect?
- Samples of juvenile offenders and how they are treated. Get some local data on this.

a. Suspended sentence.

b. Intermediate sentence. c. Probation-its purpose, and how it works.

d. Parole-is this a sound principle? F. The County Jail.

1. What has been the conditions in county jails?

2. What are the present conditions in county jails?

- 3. What is the scientific attitude towards crime? And jail conditions?
- G. President Hoover's Crime and Law Enforcement Commission, nature of its work-recommendations.
- H. Causes and effects of "the laws' delays." Assignment:

At the close of the unit:
Note.—Write a two-page paper on the phase of this unit that interests you most, giving the essential features of the problem, the proper treatment of the evil, and the matter of the future solution of the problem. Emphasize especially remedial and preventive measures for the future.

F. Advanced Assignments

For the "B" level:

Read 50 pages in excess of the minimum (D) assignment and prepare reports on five of the "Topics for Report." Assist in preparing debate, as indicated in the "A" assignment below. One or more of reports to be given

orally. For the "A" level:

Read 70 pages in excess of minimum assignment and prepare reports on seven of the "Topics for Report."

One or more reports given orally.

Debate: "Resolved, That the Eighteenth Amendment to the U. S. Constitution Should Be Repealed."

G. Topics for Report

- 1. The effects of the World War upon poverty in Europe and America.
- The relation of heredity to poverty.
- The Jukes and Kallikaks.
- 4. Outdoor relief in your community.
- Crime and city life.
- War and the crime rate.
- Crime and the immigrant.
- The reform school and the boy criminal.
- The model penitentiary.
- 10. Industrial training for the blind.
- 11. Education of the feeble-minded.

¹ E. E. Windes, County Supervisor, in "Secondary Education in Virginia (No. 9), March, 1930.

³R. C. Graham and E. B. Broadwater, principals, respectively, of the Greenwood and Meriwether Lewis High Schools, Albemarle Co., Va., in "Secondary Education in Virginia" (The University of Virginia Record, No. 9), March, 1930.

Teaching Aids and Activities for Junior High School History

BY HARRIET MCCUNE BROWN, UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

Methods of teaching history are undergoing constant change, and nowhere is this better evidenced than in the junior high school. The purpose of this investigation has been to assemble the various aids and activities used by representative junior high school history teachers, with the hope that these methods may be of service to both the experienced

and the inexperienced teacher.

The procedure followed in making this investigation was the job analysis type of research, described by C. C. Crawford in his book on research technique.1 The investigation was carried on by interviewing teachers on their methods of meeting the various difficulties connected with history teaching. These interviews were continued until they failed to make any new contributions to the methods already collected. The results as summarized below represent the methods used by more than twenty teachers of history in junior high schools. This list is presented as a collection of alternative methods, with no attempt at evaluation.

1. How to Use VISUAL AIDS

Methods of using these important devices for making history real are described in the following

paragraphs:

(1) How to use pictures: Make pictorial notebooks as individual or class projects; use pictures on the bulletin board; build a permanent picture file; introduce a new topic with pictures; use pictures to help understand a difficult subject; illustrate oral reports; use pictures as a foundation for oral reports; use pictures as a basis for written topics; use pictures in text to teach observation, to comprehend their meaning, and to make comparisons; use a series of pictures for a game; test for information learned from pictures; use pictures for atmosphere; teach pictures by the pupil-lecture method; write picture

(2) Using the motion picture: Use to introduce a new unit of work; make the movie a part of class instruction by preliminary discussion of film, by questioning to stimulate observation, by the lecture method, by asking for written expression of the visual impression, by quizzing after the film; show for appreciation only; show for review and give quiz.

(3) How to use slides: Explain by pupil reports on slides; let teacher explain slides as shown; teach observation by asking questions about slides; use for review by having pupils guess slides as shown.

(4) Still films: Use like slides.

(5) Source materials of history as visual aids: Have pupils contribute relics and other materials; hold exhibits of relics; start a permanent history museum; have a discovery day for local historical spots; visit museums and have pupils lecture on materials; give pupils problems to solve by studying museum exhibits; take small groups to the museum; stimulate pupils to go to the museum with parents.

(6) Other visual aids: Use the blackboard for rough sketches; show charts and diagrams to illustrate topics; use the time line to teach time sequence.

2. MAPS, GLOBES, AND MAP MAKING

The following methods for using maps and globes

(1) Methods of using maps: Teach place location on political maps; use physical maps to explain the history of a country; use blackboard outline maps to trace routes, mark territorial locations, to test

memory of boundaries; sketch maps on blackboard to show some point.

(2) Using globes: Show place relationships;

show size relationships.

(3) Map making: Make outline maps by tracing and carbon paper, by mimeographing, by cardboard patterns, by pantagraph enlargement; use outline maps to show territorial locations, routes, to interpret statistics, to test locational knowledge; make animated maps; make relief maps; make puzzle maps.

3. DEVICES FOR DRILL

A large variety of activities that can be used for drill on facts of history are listed in the following

paragraphs:

(1) Devices for oral drill: Conduct a rapid oral quiz; read a completion story for students to fill in; play a matching game; put together a mosaic story; have a question-and-answer drill; give an endurance quiz; have a trial by jury; drill in pairs; have pupil teachers quiz groups; have location drill using a political map or a map made by children; play game of "great men"; play "king's chair"; play the "I'm thinking of" game; have a history spelldown; play a history card game; keep a difficulty list.

(2) Devices for written drill: Give short quiz; use flash cards; give matching drill; read completion

story; have pupils keep progress graphs.

4. How to Use Oral Activities in History

Methods for using oral activities are mentioned below:

(1) Teacher participation in oral activities: Tell a story; read stories and poems; use victrola music; read the text to aid understanding; give travel talks.

- (2) Pupil participation in oral activities: Have pupils read poems or stories; demonstrate a project; give oral reports; use oral projects such as a radio program, a sightseeing trip, or a Zeppelin trip; have debates; dramatize by using impersonations, dialogues, pantomimes, plays.
- 5. TEACHING HISTORY THROUGH WRITING ACTIVITIES
- (1) Recording and organizing information: Classify items in the order of importance, of chronological sequence, or by meaning; assign completion exercise; give exercises in using single sentences to identify people, events, or dates; have each student write a question; require each student to take notes; require phrase outlining; assign written reports using reference books.
- (2) How to use creative writing in history: Give suggestions for stimulating creative writing in a fashion similar to writing done by other pupils; require the reading of source materials, historical poems or stories, school paper, pictures, motion pictures, to get ideas for writing; assign the writing of an imaginary diary; have pupils write letters, historical poems, plays, dialogues, newspaper articles, advertisements, slogans, historical novelettes, speeches, and imaginary documents.
 - 6. Drawing Activities in the History Class
 The following means of interpreting history

through drawing are offered:

(1) Charts, diagrams, and graphs: Have pupils make charts such as wall charts, time lines, animated time lines; make diagrams of historical facts or situations; make bar, line, or circle graphs.

(2) Use of copying: Copying and enlarging pictures from the text; reproducing historical relics and

source materials.

- (3) Cartoons and sketches: Encourage making cartoons of historical information or situations; have a cartoon day; make a toy theatre; draw historical sketches.
- (4) Still films and slides: Organize slide projects with pupil drawings; make still film rolls to show the story of a country, using original illustrations.

7. Construction Activities in History

Examples of actual projects are listed, as well as suggestions for adapting projects to the various

ability groups:

(1) Suggestions for using manual projects: Use simple projects for slow groups; use extensive projects for rapid groups; stimulate voluntary projects; include manual projects for each large unit of work; present projects by having them accompany topics to which they relate, or by having a surprise day; emphasize finished work; use projects as visual aids.

(2) Examples of projects: Puppet show; camp of Caesar; feudal castle; cross section of a pyramid; Roman aqueduct; Egyptian mummy; Egyptian shadow clock; models of California missions, Spanish institutions in California; Viking ship; Landing of the Pilgrims; pioneer settlement; papyrus with hieroglyphics; Swiss lake village; fire-making tools; first hatchets; model of Stonehenge; Grecian columns; meeting of the first trans-continental railroad; model of Greek theater; model of the Acropolis; dolls dressed in ancient costume; Greek ship; California stage coach; model of Rameses; hall of Karnak; Assyrian lion; Roman chariot; Greek coins; model of the Clermont; colonial schoolhouse; Roman wall and fortifications; medieval book.

8. How to Teach Current Events

The various means of teaching current events are given below:

Historical method through class development of a topic, or through individual development of a topic; committee method of reporting on events; topical method; notebook method by making a digest of weekly events, or keeping a notebook of clippings; current events open day once a month; applying history to current events; current events via radio; current events roll-call; text method using a magazine; problem method of looking up events; current events bulletin board; pictures for current events; cartoon corner; comprehension game; current events class clubs; current events debates; dramatization of current events; quiz.

9. How to Encourage Historical Reading

The following suggestions are offered for encouraging and making use of historical reading by pupils: Give suggestions for suitable books to read, such as textbook lists or published lists; browsing table; books supplied by teacher; books supplied by pupils; advertising books; history shelf in the library; blackboard list of books; card file of books; pursuing a problem until it leads to home reading; movies and slides as stimuli to reading; using the project as an incentive to reading; reading charts; reading maps

drawn by children; credit points for reading; pupil recommendations; special report days; reading "purple passages"; collecting historical poems.

¹ Claude C. Crawford, The Technique of Research in Education. Los Angeles, University of Southern California, 1928, pp. 143-156.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The National Council for the Social Studies will sponsor a luncheon, hold a business meeting, and participate in three programs in Boston during the days of the American Historical Association meetings, December 29th, 30th, 31st.

On Monday morning and Monday afternoon, December 29th, the Council will co-operate with the Commission of the American Historical Association on the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools. One of these two meetings will be devoted to reports on the work and progress of the Commission, of which Professor A. C. Krey is Director. The second meeting will deal with reports on the work of teacher-training institutions in the training of teachers in the social studies. Both of these meetings will be held in Jacob Sleeper Hall, 688 Boylston Street, Boston.

On Monday noon at the Copley Plaza Hotel, the National Council will sponsor a luncheon to which all who are interested are invited. At the luncheon Professor Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, New York City, will preside. Professor William E. Dodd, Head of the Department of History, University of Chicago, will speak on "Nationalism in History," and Professor Arthur M. Schlesinger, of Harvard University, will discuss his address. The cost of the luncheon is \$1.50 per plate, and all who are interested should make reservations not later than December 26th. Those who desire to attend should send their names to Howard E. Wilson, 4 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

On Monday morning, the 29th, a business and breakfast meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held at the Hotel Statler. All who are interested in the plans and policies of the Council are urged to attend. The breakfast will be at 8.30, and the cost per plate is \$1.50. Reservations should be made with Howard E. Wilson at the address above not later than December 26th.

On Tuesday morning, December 30th, at 10 o'clock, in Jacob Sleeper Hall, 688 Boylston Street, Boston, the National Council will co-operate with the New England History Teachers Association in the presentation of a program dealing with the social studies

in grade twelve. Mr. Mellville C. Freeman, of the Boston High School of Practical Arts, President of the New England History Teachers Association, will preside. Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, will speak on "A New Approach to the Modern Problems Course." Discussion of his paper will be led by Mr. Horace Kidger, of the Newton High School, and Mr. W. G. Kimmel, Executive Secretary of the Commission on the Investigation of the Social Studies.

Committee on Local Arrangements:

CHESTER M. BLISS,
WILFRED F. KELLEY,
TYLER KEPNER,
HORACE KIDGER,
JOHN J. MAHONEY,
HOWARD E. WILSON, Chairman.

The Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association (1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., 1930) contains a series of articles of interest to teachers of the social studies. Emma L. Bolzan and Alma Grace Hamilton, in "Adjusting the Social Studies to the Dull Normal in High School," describe the work of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls in meeting the needs of slow pupils. An extension course, open to pupils of fifteen years of age, includes 4 per cent. of the school population. The group has a median I. Q. of 87, ten points below that for the tenth grade. For tenth-grade pupils above this mental level, courses are arranged in terms of units, and the Dalton method is used. The group enrolled is selected on the basis of I. Q.'s, scores on reading tests, and the estimates of teachers. Pupils use textbooks intended for grades six and seven, spend the first three months of the course in supervised study, and later work individually. Copies of parts of guide sheets, tests, and graduated assignments are included.

Sedohr Rhodes MacDonald, in "Child Activities in History," includes excerpts from a dramatization, verse, songs and poetry, and mentions the teacher's part in the work. Irene O'Brien, in "Motivation of Collateral Reading in History," outlines a plan for the utilization of the interests of pupils, includes a list of subjects of reports based on readings prepared by pupils, and mentions the possibilities between the social studies and other courses. Gladys Graham, in "The Making of the United States," describes a pageant which included the making of a large map in which beaver board was used. A series of projects developed with children in the intermediate grades are presented by Florence Slocum, "Gary, Its History and Development"; Ethel Hofmann, "A World's Fair"; Mary Graham Andrews, "Creative Art and History"; Josephine McSweency, "Puppetry Used to Vitalize the History

Period"; Grace MacKenzie, "A Study of Japan and Its

A series of projects in geography is described by Claire Micheau Nedder, "Geography Dolls"; Ruth Harris, "How We Vitalize Geography"; Louisa Newton, "An Animal Show"; Grace Ogden, "A Trip Around the Great Lakes"; Mame Allen, "Geography as a Means of Developing Tolerance." Jekiel S. Davis describes "A Senior High School Coography Course." Geography McPheters in "Characteristics of the Cooperation of the Cooper Geography Course." George Allen McPheters, in "Character Education in the Teaching of Community Civics," describes ways to connect the study of civies with the experience of pupils.

A series of articles on the social studies in the kindergarten, primary, and intermediate grades is also included.

Bernice Alma Prochaska and Reed Bain, Sociology in Ohio High Schools (Columbus, Ohio State Department of Education, n. d., pp. 39), is a reprint of investigations from the Ohio Sociologist. Prochaska used the annual high school reports for 1928-1929, supplemented by data obtained from replies by principals to a questionnaire. All social studies other than history and economics are classified as "sociology." Thus civics, problems of democracy, and all courses which deal in part with social studies are so classified. The data are arranged in the form of three tables and replies to thirteen questions. Of 877 county high schools, 775 list one or more courses, with problems of American democracy in 259 schools, occupations and community civies in 157, sociology in 125, economics and sociology in 115, community civics in 109, and other courses in small numbers The courses are required in 38.8 per cent, and elective in 61.2 per cent. of the schools. The largest number of the courses are offered in the ninth grade, in the twelfth grade, in the eleventh and twelfth grades combined. There is no uniformity in the subject combinations of teachers offering the courses; the general practice apparently is to assign these courses to teachers of other subjects in order to complete their teaching schedules. The courses apparently are most frequently given in combinations with mathematics, closely followed by combinations with athletics and physical education, foreign languages, home economics, chemistry or physics, in the order of frequency of mention listed. The textbooks and reference books, arranged in order of frequency of mention, indicate a lack of agreement on the content of the courses. Teachers are Teachers are inadequately trained.

Bain's investigation, based on replies to a questionnaire received from 288 high school principals, is based on courses in sociology and social problems. Data are included in five tables. Findings include: (1) sociology tends to crowd out courses in social problems, especially in large city high schools; (2) the latter type of schools often offer both courses; (3) rural principals would make sociology a required course, but there is a disposition among city principals to regard it as an elective course; (4) 70.2 per cent. favor a one-semester course; (5) 33.4 per cent. of the principals regard a minor in sociology as essential for the teacher who is to offer the course, while 40 per cent, of the urban principals would require a major in sociology; (6) 65 per cent. have difficulty in obtaining adequately trained teachers; (7) almost 80 per cent. expect to see sociology obtain an increasing importance in the curriculum during the next ten years; (8) sociology is regarded by

principals as more valuable than economics.

The entire October number of the Journal of the Louisiana State Teachers' Association is devoted to the teaching of the social studies. Paul Weiss, in "Modern Trends in the Social Sciences," discusses current changes in aims, types of courses, textbooks, and methods of study and teaching. John E. Coxe, in "Vitalizing Civic Training in the High School," stresses the need for facing social facts squarely in the classroom, however unpleasant they may be. He regards the social studies as one of the main fields in the curriculum, and states that the school can never fully realize its purpose if a policy prevails which pro-

hibits the study of live social issues. The following safeguards for such study are set forth as follows:

"1. Common sense should prevail as to which live and controversial issues are discussed. The school cannot cover all of them. Proper selection should result in the use of topics which are appropriate for the consideration of children, which have large social sig-nificance, and which do not arouse unnecessarily warring public emotions.

"2. Teachers should be carefully trained to distinguish between the approach of the propagandist and the approach of the scientist. The importance of strict impartiality in arriving at final decisions, or conclusions, should be clearly realized.

"3. The introduction of the study of controversial issues

should be made gradually.

"4. The community should be taken into the confidence of teacher and school administrators. Class-conscious groups, particularly, should understand the impartiality of the school's attitude.

"5. The pitfalls of poor teaching in this field and the danger of misunderstanding on the part of the public should be carefully evaluated, in order that difficulties

may be prevented.

"6. Remember always that the objective is to develop a method of studying controversial issues, not to settle them in the classroom. A tactful teacher will develop open-mindedness in pupils by seeing that both sides to controversial issues which come up for discussion

are presented."

Harry de La Rue, in "What the College Expects of the High School Student in History," states that "what to teach must remain a debatable question," cites data from the division of space in different textbooks and from an investigation of questions asked by teachers to indicate the need for improvement. There is a tendency at present to set up standards and then test achievements by these standards, but history does not readily lend itself to these standards, and focusing attention unduly on the achievement of a definite standard may result in losing sight of imparting information and developing the capacity of reasoning. In "The Value and Place of Geography in the High School Curriculum," John S. Kyser states that geography "has labored under a kind of inferiority complex," emphasis has been largely on the place element, and that the study of geography in the schools has been handicapped until recently by the lack of advanced study in univer-The contributions to be made by geography include sities. organized study of regions or areas, the gaining of a wider vision for other studies, and the value of useful knowledge after graduation.

Lilla McClure, in "Community Civics versus Formal Civics," sets forth the desirability of arousing a "feeling of social consciousness necessary for the creation of reof social consciousness necessary for the creation of responsible citizenship." Kate E. Perkins, in "Training for 'itizenship," sets forth five traits which may be developed through the study of history: concentration of purpose, broadmindedness, respect for men and women who have made contributions, respect for law, and training in use of leisure. In "Practical Civics in the Working Out of American Ideals," Charles W. Pipkin stresses the state of becoming rather than resignation to conditions as they are as the goal of intelligent patriotism. Sue Hefley, in "A Teaching Unit in American History Designed to Follow the Morrison Plan of Instruction," outlines a unit and includes an assimilation test of forty-four items. Kate Bacot presents "A Teaching Unit in European History According to the Laboratory Method." Grace Ulmer discusses "Methods and Materials in the Teaching of American History.' The "Minutes of the Meeting of the Social Science Section

of the L. T. A." are included.

Helen M. Campbell, in "Prejudiced Thinking of School Children," in the October number of The Teachers' Journal and Abstract, reports some results of an investigation of the responses of children at different grade levels to certain types of controversial issues. A tabulation of topics of a

controversial nature discussed in the newspapers and periodicals was made through a sampling of The Literary Digest. Two criteria for the elimination of issues from the long list were used: (1) discretion-sentimentally cherished prejudices which might result in school administrators' refusals to permit investigation of community prejudices; (2) practicality—attention span of children, and the time element. The items finally used included prejudices on social groups, social and economic terms, such as socialism, modernism, anarchists, prohibition. These items were arranged in "reaction schedules"; for example, "Bootleggers (should, should not) be kept in prison as long as possible," and pupils were asked to cross out one of the words or series of words in parentheses. Space was also provided for any additional or qualifying statement for each item. The "reaction schedule" was administered to 97 intermewas administered to 97 intermediate, 107 junior high school, and 106 senior high school pupils. Considerable space is given to the classification of different types of responses. About 80 per cent. of the responses may be classified as prejudiced, with a variation of only 2 per cent. in the parentages of prejudiced responses at different grade levels. There seems to be no sound reason to assume incidental transfer from the ac-cumulation of information to the use of information in thinking.

C. C. Crawford and Roland Wells Grinstead, in "The Use of the Excursion in Teaching Commercial Geography, in the October issue of Journal of Geography, report a series of four experiments. Two of the experiments were of the rotation type and two were equivalent group experiments, the pupils being paired in terms of intelligence and school status. The subjects considered in the different experiments were dairying, manufacturing of furniture, meat packing industry, and tire manufacturing. The classroom work for the groups who studied about the different industries was based on progressive procedures, while the groups who went on excursions followed definite plans. The time spent was the same for all groups, two-hour periods. Based on a comprehensive test, the results were uniformly in favor of the excursion method, with differences in average scores in its favor of 35.67 and 48.45 in the two rotation experiments, and 8.5 and 5.9 in the equivalent group experiments. In the latter experiments, with the lowest difference in average scores in favor of the excursion method, the pupils were of average intelligence. The authors cite the following considerations, which may explain the superior results of the excursion method: (1) the excursions are of more interest to pupils; (2) they afford a practical study of the realities of life; (3) opportunities are provided for becoming directly acquainted with a variety of occupations; (4) a fund of experience and mental imagery is gained which enables pupils to interpret abstract materials found in books; (5) experiences are gained on subjects other than the one directly concerned in the excursion; (6) pupils are stimulated to read in order to learn more about the interests aroused during the excursion; (7) pupils learn to make their own industrial explorations outside of school hours. Twenty-six suggestions are made for the handling of excursions.

In the same issue Virginia Willcuts reports "A Grade Movie Project on the Study of Tin."

In the October issue of Bulletin of High Points, Daniel Tenrosen, in "The Nature of the Regents' Examinations in American History: A Reply," cites the main arguments advanced against the examinations in the January issue of the same publication, presents an analysis of the types of content required to answer questions in certain of the examinations, and arrives at conclusions favorable on the whole to the types of questions set for the examination in American history. The writer concludes that the questions are based on topics which contribute most to an understanding of contemporary problems, that the mastery of the materials included in the examinations would substantiate the claim that pupils have a command of the

fundamental elements of American history, the emphasis upon essential materials tends to free teachers from the necessity of attempting "to try to cover everything," and permits time beyond the mastery of essentials for the measure of freedom and initiative in emphasizing those phases of history which are in harmony with special interests.

J. L. Bernstein, in "Current Events in the Franklin K. Lane High Schoot," in the same issue, raises questions concerning the teaching of current events, includes a series of propositions upon which there was general agreement on the part of the teachers in the department, outlines briefly a plan for the use of the daily newspaper as the content for current events, and mentions certain outcomes of such instruction. The series of propositions agreed upon by teachers at departmental meetings is:

1. Current events should be taught as far as possible in connection with the subject, topic, or problem before the class in any period of classroom work.

"2. It is generally not advisable to set aside a special period for current events. Such a recitation tends to become artificial and stilted.

"3. It is more important to develop an interest in current happenings and an appreciation of the necessity of keeping abreast of the times than to cram pupils' heads full of facts.

"4. It is also of greater importance to develop in pupils the ability to discriminate between the vital and significant facts of current history and the trivial or purely transitory events.

purely transitory events.

"5. Generally, such current happenings should be dealt with as have some real bearing on the subject-matter of the term or the topic of the particular period. The closer the relationship between the two the better. This will aid tremendously in the vitalization of the work done in history. However, an exception may be made in the case of an event of unusual world interest or importance. Such an event may be studied at any time and in any grade of work, the time allotted to it being, of course, in proportion to its general importance.

"6. There should be a current events question on each mid-term examination in every grade, of such a nature as to test definitely both the pupil's ability to judge and discriminate and his knowledge of essential and significant facts.

"7. The materials to be used should be left to the discretion of the individual teacher."

Lewis Stockton, in the same issue, under the title, "Vocational Civics: A Study," describes briefly a course of study intended for slow pupils in the Erasmus Hall High School, and sets forth a significant list of facts concerning pupils enrolled in the course. All entering pupils having I. Q.'s of less than 85 are not scheduled for mathematics and foreign languages, but are enrolled in other courses. Only 36 per cent. of these pupils pass the courses, even though teachers set lower standards than for regular classes. The pupils range in age from fourteen to eighteen years. Despite these handicaps in ability, age, and previous school success, 78 expect to enter college, 23 expect to complete the high school course, while 20 are remaining in school until they reach the age when working papers are obtainable without attending continuation school. The choices of future occupations include: law, 9; medicine, 11; dentistry, 5; pharmacy, 2; engineering, 10; teaching, 25. The occupations of the parents are mainly unskilled and skiller labor, white-collar commercial work, small storekeepers.

The course in vocational civics is of an informational type, with the aim of showing pupils the financial and social opportunities of the different vocations. Upon completion of the course, none of the pupils lost their desire to enter college, but several changed their choice of vocation. During the term 22 left school to go to work, and 18 requested transfers to commercial and technical schools.

Caroline H. Garbe, in "An Experiment in Correlating English Composition with the Content Subjects," reports results obtained through the correlation mentioned in the title and by the displacing of a formal course in grammar by incidental instruction in grammar and usage, in the sixth grade. Teachers of the social studies will be interested in the description of materials dealing with geography and history which furnished topics for composition and floor talks, and the titles of units used in history.

F. B. Riggs, in "A Plea for International Amity" in the October issue of *Progressive Education*, sets forth some of the factors which seem to be opposed to better international understanding, such as race prejudice and military training in the schools, and outlines briefly some of the things which schools are doing to promote international amity.

W. A. Stigler, in "Larger Group Instruction in the Social Studies," in the October issue of School Executives Magazine, reports certain results gained through instruction in the social studies in groups of pupils numbering from 90 to 150 pupils in Grades V, VI, and VII, in El Paso, Texas. Two teachers are assigned to each group, with a smaller number of teaching periods per day. Classes meet in the auditorium and large study halls. Textbooks are filed, along with other types of illustrative materials, in the library, and visual aids are provided. The course of study is not followed at all points.

The results of an exploratory test of 500 items (information items and items including facts which require ability to reason) are given. Several months later another test was administered, to both small and large groups made up of both Mexican and native children. Only comparative percentages of improvement in scores are included. The large groups are reported to have made gains from 28 to 42 per cent., while the improvement in the small groups ranged from 12 to 18 per cent. Quotations are included from the report of the Director of Experimental Education.

In the same issue Merrill Bishop, in "Teaching Occupations in the Junior High School," outlines the principal features of a course for seventh-grade pupils, such as the introduction of the pupils to the course. Through consideration of jobs held during vacation periods, the approach through the occupations which provide food, shelter, and clothing for the pupils, and the co-operation of different departments in the administration of the course. A brief outline of the course for Grade VII B is appended.

Arthur Dondinean, in "Trends of Social Science Teaching in Detroit," in the September issue of Junior-Senior High School Clearing House, presents some results of a questionnaire study of 116 high school and 152 intermediate school teachers of the social studies. Brief summaries of four trends were included in the questionnaire, followed by questions, and the replies are summarized in a table, 9 per cent. of the high school teachers and 97 per cent. of the intermediate school teachers believe that controversial questions should be considered, although only about one-third of each group would include religion. More than one-half of the teachers believe that lessons should be planned for the inculcation of attitudes. Nearly all teachers would include current events in the social studies program, and 88 per cent. of the intermediate teachers and 48 per cent. of the high school teachers would include vocational guidance. More than half of each group would also include geography. Almost two-thirds of the high school teachers would provide one course in history for pupils who will graduate and another for pupils who will be likely to leave school before graduation, while 95 per cent. of them regard history as an essential subject for the understanding of social institutions.

"Curricular Changes in Junior Colleges," by L. R. Hiatt, in the October issue of *Junior College Journal*, is a study of comparative study of the offerings of nineteen junior colleges as reported in their catalogues for the academic

years 1920-21 and 1929-30. Social sciences rank first in the list of offerings, with a total of 591 credits for 1920-21, and 942 credits for 1929-30, an increase of 59 per cent. The following subjects rank higher than the social sciences in percentages of increase of offerings in the order named: art, music, home economics, drawing, engineering, physical education, agriculture, biological sciences, physical sciences, and modern languages. In the social sciences, history ranks first, with 269 credits for 1920-21 and 329 for 1929-30; economics is second, with 83 and 120 credits; political science shows an increase from 64 to 125 credits; sociology, from 53 to 76 credits. The author classifies psychology, education, and philosophy under social science. Eleven credits were offered in orientation courses in 1929-30, while no such courses were offered by the nineteen junior colleges in 1920-21.

The October issue of School Executives Magazine contains the following news items:
"Unit Plan for Teaching Social Studies

"Unit Plan for Teaching Social Studies
"At Franklin High School in Seattle, Washington, the
unit plan has been used successfully in teaching the social
science classes. Reporting upon the work there, N. C.
Davenport tells how the difficult features of the program
were developed. The work of the various committees made
possible the selection of the proper units. The outlines
submitted are considered tentative and are subject to revision at any time. The shortness of time, which is a bugbear to all enthusiastic teachers, has been met by using
fewer units and mastering them. To facilitate matters,
pupils are furnished with guide sheets, prepared by the
teachers and mimeographed by the office training classes.
The whole technique is summarized in the formula: teach,
test, diagnose, adapt, teach again. Mr. Davenport lists
the following points of progress made through the use of

- the unit plan:

 "1. Vast stimulation in the search for improved methods of social science instruction.
 - "2. Realization of the social science classroom as a laboratory for work in social materials.
 - "3. Realization of the necessity for clear-cut aims and definite assimilative materials to focus on these aims.
 - "4. Retirement of the teacher from the too conspicuous place occupied in the question-and-answer type of instruction and the reduction of excessive questioning."

The organization, purposes, and proposed facilities of the International Educational Cinematographic Institute are described in the October number of The Motion Picture Monthly, by Augustus A. Thomas, in "The Film Textbook: World Movement Sponsored by League of Nations to Make the Screen a New Arm of Education." The Italian government proposed the creation of the Institute to the League of Nations, and offered to defray all expenses and to supply quarters for the administration. The Villa Torlonia in Rome was placed at the disposal of the Institute, and the Villa Falconieri is also used. The Italian Minister of Justice, Hon. Alfredo Rocco, is President; Dr. Luciano de Feo, Executive Director, and Carl E. Milliken, Secretary of Motion Picture Producers and Distributors, Inc., is the American member of the Administrative Council of the Institute. The Institute has established a large card index covering all phases of motion picture developments, and receives nearly 700 magazines dealing with films regularly. A monthly review on educational films is published monthly in five editions—English, Italian, French, German, and Spanish. A series of special investigations are planned, and the Institute eventually will serve as a distributing center for films. Implications of the Institute's work for better international understanding are mentioned.

An experiment in the use of the radio in instruction in current events in twenty-five schools in Dana County, Wisconsin, using experimental and control groups in Grades VI-VIII, is reported to have resulted in the finding that current events can be better taught through the use of the radio than without its use, according to a statement by

Dr. K. L. Ewbank, Chairman of the Radio Research Committee of the University of Wisconsin.

The Scholastic Publishing Company, Pittsburgh, Pa., has reprinted a series of sixteen articles by Professor Walter R. Agard, which were published in serial form in The Scholastic. The 38-page pamphlet, entitled, "The Glory That Was Greece," is attractive in format, includes a large number of photographs, lists of questions and projects, and lists of references for further reading. Teachers of early European history will find the pamphlet usable and interesting for pupils. Price, 35 cents per copy; 25 cents per copy for ten or more copies sent to the same address.

The National Student Forum on the Paris Pact, 532 Seventeenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., will send bibliographies, syllabi, and teaching outlines to schools which desire to make a study of the Paris Pact. There are a series of prizes—local, state, and national—for schools and pupils enrolling in an essay contest, including a national prize in the form of a trip to Europe.

The Civic-Historical Section of the Eastern Division of Colorado Education Association, at the meeting in Denver, October 30th, included the following program: Professor Frederick D. Bramhall, University of Colorado, "An Agricultural Constitution in a Machine Age"; Professor Edith C. Bramhall, Colorado College, "Methods of Amending the Constitution," Mary E. Christy, North High School, Denver, "The Social Science Curriculum in the Denver Schools"; Katherine E. Hoffman, East High School, Denver, "Some Recent Experiments in Civic Education"; Esta Bashor, Junior High School, Greeley, "Relative Efficiency

of Methods of Instruction in History." The officers of the Civic-Historical Section are: President, D. Shaw Duncan, University of Denver; Secretary, Elizabeth J. Work, Fort Morgan.

The Social Science Section of the Southern Division of the Colorado Education Association, in a meeting at Pueblo, October 30th, included the following program: Paul Kirk, Central Junior High School, Pueblo, "Report of Committee on Aims in Our Work"; Millard Ryan, Rocky Ford, "Report of the Committee on the Pre-Test." The officers are: President, Ruth Lytle, La Junta; Secretary, Hazel Anderson, Pueblo.

The History Section of the Hartford meeting of the Connecticut State Teachers, held at the Hartford Public High School, on October 24th, was divided into two round-table conferences for the morning section. "Everyday Problems in History Teaching" was the theme of these conferences, with Paul A. Libby, Commercial High School, New Haven, leader of the discussion of "United States History and Civics," and Angelina M. Rogers, Hartford Public High School, leader of the conference on "Ancient, Medieval, and Modern History." At the afternoon session Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, delivered an address, "The Need of Stabilizing the Outline and Method of History Teaching." The History Teachers' Association of Connecticut, recently organized, held a brief business session.

Editor's Note.—On page 333 of this department in the November issue an error in spelling was made in the name of Miss Clarke, of the John C. Frémont High School, Los Angeles, Calif. The correct form is Esther Godshaw Clarke.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The Coming of the War: 1914. By Bernadotte E. Schmitt. Scribner's, New York, 1930. 2 vols. Pp. 539, 515.

In outward appearance this book is very impressive: it is a thorough and fully documented study of the diplomacy of July, 1914, based upon a remarkably wide knowledge of the literature of the subject, and with a vast amount of carefully arranged material to support the author's conclusions. The two volumes contain over 1,000 pages, 750 of which are devoted to events after the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand. The author bases this major portion of his book largely upon a study of the diplomatic correspondence of the period, though he also makes use of post-war memoirs, and shows himself thoroughly familiar with the huge secondary literature that has grown up during the last fifteen years.

The book describes in detail the events and situations that arose day by day, and attempts to analyze the men-tality and motives of each of the major actors in the drama at every stage of its progress. It is therefore by no means easy to summarize the author's conclusions in a few lines, but he makes the story run something like this: Austria's position in the Balkan peninsula had been so weakened by the wars of 1912-13 that, in the opinion of some statesmen, force was required to restore it; the assassination of the archduke gave an excellent excuse for such a use of force. When the Germans were consulted, the kaiser, who had "pondered for several months the idea" of such action (I, 290), knew at once that a European war would probably result, yet gave his consent notwithstanding. During the ensuing weeks the Germans were constantly pushing the Austrians on, until at last they forced them into a position from which retreat was impossible. In the meantime the Russians had announced that they could not view Austrian action with indifference, but neither Germans nor Austrians paid attention to these warnings. When, however, Bethmann-Hollweg began to fear that England would not remain neutral, he suddenly veered about and began urging caution upon his ally. But these protests were not made seriously (as the Austrians knew), and they were accompanied by further promptings to immediate action from the German military authorities. The schemes for mediation which Sir Edward Grey had been urging were therefore doomed to failure. Even Russian mobilization was unimportant, we are told (II, 265), except as it gave the Germans a pretext for action already decided upon. German statesmen are thus pictured as being primarily responsible for the war, and Professor Schmitt's book is unquestionably the severest indictment of them that has appeared since the war.

One does not have to read far to discover the spirit in which the book is written. If we open the first volume at pages 388-9 we are told, in the course of these two pages, that Tisza made speeches, one of which was false and the other "even more disingenuous," that attempts were made by the Austrians to "mislead" public opinion, that a "ruse" of Berchtold's was successful and that the kaiser's trip to Norway was "much the same game," that a British consulgeneral was "taken in" while the under-secretary at London was "misled," and that "the duping of Europe seems to have been eminently successful." So it goes, with page after page of intrigues, dupings, and lies, by the statesmen of the Central Powers. On a very few occasions Frenchmen and Russians are caught slipping, and once the author doubts the complete candor of a certain Serb-but Englishmen he never suspects. The statesmen of the Central Powers are all painted in the blackest colors, especially Bethmann-Hollweg, the portrait of whom is abominable: this man, whom the British ambassador in Berlin believed to be "both honest and straightforward," and whom Lord Haldane had declared in 1912 to be a "high-minded, sincere gentleman," whose standards of honor were as high as

those of the noble Sir Edward Grey, and whose standards of truth were higher, is here depicted as an intriguer and underhanded schemer, given to "slippery tricks," and repeatedly guilty of "deliberate misrepresentation" and even

of "untruth."

Professor Schmitt's admiration for Sir Edward Grey, on the other hand, knows no bounds. There is scarcely a syllable of criticism of him in the whole book, and he is regularly presented as the one man "who had a vision of a new order," and who anticipated the "Spirit of Locarno." As a supreme illustration of Grey's advanced views, Schmitt quotes (I, 58) the terms of a treaty of non-aggression which Grey offered to exchange with Germany in 1912. Unfortunately for Schmitt, however, the treaty was not Grey's idea, but Bethmann-Hollweg's. The German chancellor handed a proposed form to Haldane when the latter was in Berlin; Grey refused it, but at last, under pressure from the cabinet, he watered it down to the form quoted by Schmitt, to which he consented; but as the Germans could see nothing but rhetoric in Grey's version, they dropped the matter (G. P., xxxi, 116-9, etc.; B. D., vi, 682-4, etc.). Likewise, Schmitt quotes with high praise one of Grey's dispatches, dated July 30th, which "concluded on a note that was new in European diplomacy": if the crisis were safely passed, Grey would try to bring about an arrangement whereby the nations agreed not to attack one another (II, 260). Again the author mentions the Treaties of Locarno. But even if Schmitt has not read the documents on the diplomatic history of pre-war Europe, the might suspect from Grey's closing sentence (beginning "The idea has hitherto been too Utopian..."), that the "note" was not altogether "new"; and if he has read the documents he knows that at this moment of crisis Grey is at last consenting to discuss a formula which Bethmann-Hollweg had been vainly urging ever since he became chancellor (G. P., xxviii, ch. 223; B. D., vi, ch. 45).

Professor Schmitt is not content, however, with praising

his hero by attributing to him ideas which were really those of a man whom he vilifies in every chapter: he is also most circumspect in avoiding discussion of Grey's shortcomings. It will be recalled that in June, 1914, when Grey was discussing a naval convention with Russia, that news of the discussion leaked out, and that questions were asked in parliament. By a highly involved statement, Grey successfully gave the impression that the rumors were false. He later declared that although evasive, every word of his statement was true-yet it did contain one flat falsehood. Schmitt relegates the whole story to a footnote (I, 52), accepts Grey's declaration regarding the truth of his words, and says that the Germans were satisfied. In reality, this was not the case: as a spy had supplied them with the Russian correspondence, the Germans knew that Grey was lying. The under-secretary in the German foreign office wrote a minute on the matter (another part of which Schmitt quotes in a different context, I, 323), in which he senint quotes in a different context, 1, 333), in which he spoke sarcastically of Grey as "an honorable and truth-loving statesman"; and when the kaiser so frequently wrote "Liar!" opposite Grey's name on the dispatches of July, it was to this lie especially that he referred. The Germans naturally became more suspicious than ever of Grey, and they did not have time to forget these suspicions before the final crisis arrived. The episode surely deserves more

than a footnote.

Schmitt's procedure in this case is the more striking because he is very severe indeed upon Jagow for falsely denying foreknowledge of the Austrian ultimatum. A full page (I, 384) is devoted to establishing this falsehood and to moralizing upon its unfortunate consequences. Grey told exactly the same lie—which fact is mentioned only in the middle of a long and forbidding footnote dealing with another matter (1, 425), where Grey is excused on the ground that his early information was "private and unofficial." But how about Jagow's? Many pages below (II, 74), Schmitt returns to Jagow's sin, declaring that his "numerous untruths ... about ... the ultimatum ... must wholly disqualify him as a witness"; yet Grey's panegyric on himself is unquestioningly accepted as a source in countless cases. There is no intention of criticizing Schmitt's well-

chosen remarks on the disadvantages of getting caught lying; but it does seem that he might have applied them with greater propriety to Grey than to Jagow: at most he merely suspects that the British suspected Jagow of lying about the ultimatum, whereas he knows that the Germans knew that Grey was lying about the naval discussions.

These remarks indicate sufficiently that, in the present reviewer's opinion, Professor Schmitt's prejudices are so strong as to render him unable to write impartial history. If space permitted, criticism would also be made of some of the sources to which he refers frequently—especially Conrad's memoirs, to which he seems to attribute verbainerrancy, even in their most apologetic parts and in conversations reported after many years, and in spite of the fact that he is sometimes driven to great lengths (as, for example, II, 184-6) to avoid admitting that Conrad is wrong in crucial passages, contradicted by the clear evidence of contemporary documents of unimpeachable authenticity. It might also be asked whether even the diplomatic correspondence is susceptible of the use Schmitt makes of it: during the last tragic days, most of the statesmen of Europe, and especially the Germans, were on the verge of hysteria, so that we may ask whether they always expressed their meaning perfectly in dispatches and whether they at once grasped all the remote implications of those they received: did they at once see in every document all that a later scholar, fortified by hindsight, believes that he can establish by long and intricate reasoning, after fifteen years devoted to scrutinizing the documents for traces of German guilt? A number of illustrations might also be given of statements with no serious evidence at all (as the theory that German mobilization was determined by Belgian activity, not by Russian mobilization), of other statements which go far beyond the evidence offered (as the crucial charge that the kaiser had been pondering the idea of Austrian action against Serbia for many months), and of still others which show an unfortunate tendency to grow after the proof has been presented (Germany's suggestion that if Austria were going to act against Serbia she do so that if Austria were going to act against Serbia she do so at once, before Europe forgot the shock caused by the murder, presently is described as "urging Austria to immediate action" [I, 307], then as "vigorously pressing" her to action [II, 35], and eventually [II, 65] as "frantically urging" her "to the final plunge"). It therefore does not seem probable that any large number of Professor Schmitt's new and startling statements will win the acceptance of Yet in spite of the author's conspicuous descholars. partures from the usually accepted canons of historical criticism, there are many excellent points to his book: a great mass of material has been assembled, and the analysis of situations is sometimes very acute. It is a book which every specialist on war-origins must read with care.

It is natural to compare this book with Professor Fay's Origins of the World War, and to ask whether or not the latter must be revised because of Professor Schmitt's researches. It is the present reviewer's opinion that very little modification of the earlier work will be necessary. Though Schmitt's conclusions differ widely from Fay's, and though he is often obviously writing at him, on only four or five occasions does he see fit to cite chapter and verse of Fay-which is certainly complimentary to Professor Fay's scholarship. But much as the two writers differ in their conclusions, they differ more in their attitudes: moral epithets and judgments, which are very sparingly used by Fay, are applied by Schmitt in such profusion as materially to increase the bulk of his volumes. The truth is that this book should be compared, not to Professor Fay's, but to Harry Elmer Barnes' Genesis of the World War. Each of these writers is less interested in telling what happened than in assessing blame for it, and in imposing his moral judgments upon the reader. Each therefore writes con-troversially, and each arranges his facts to support his moral theories. And while Professor Schmitt has obviously devoted more time and care to his book than did Professor Barnes, it is not clear that he understands the history of July, 1914, better. Nor is it certain that his book will be so successful as Barnes': it is heavy reading, showing little of the literary ability, the forcefulness of expression, the incisiveness of thought, and the humor which are required of a popular controversialist, and which Barnes possesses to so eminent a degree. With the general reader, therefore, as well as with scholars, the innuence of Schmitt's book will probably be rather limited: it is, with the exception of Renouvin's, the weightiest statement of the case of the Entente allies that has yet appeared, but it will convince only those who already believe.

After all, perhaps the truest characterization of the book would be to say that it is such a one as might have been written by Sir Eyre Crowe, the assistant under-secretary in the British foreign office: in one passage (I, 429) Schmitt admits that his view of events down to July 22d is identical with that set forth in Crowe's minutes; as the rest of the book is written in the same spirit, we may assume that the conclusions continue to be those which Crowe would have drawn. In saying this the reviewer intends to pay Professor Schmitt a very high compliment. Though Sir Eyre was sadly given to dragging out his wearisome moral reflections upon his opponents, and though he was blinded by an inordinate malevolence towards Germany, he was the scholar of the British foreign office just before the war: he was a man of wide learning and acute mind, and he knew how to retain the deep regard of the high-minded and wellhow to retain the deep regard of the meaning, but ill-informed, Sir Edward Grey.

J. W. SWAIN.

University of Illinois.

Book of Christopher Columbus. A Lyrical Drama. By Paul Claudel. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1930. 57 pp.

Ferdinand Magellan. By E. F. Benson. Harper and Broth-

ers, New York, 1930. vi, 262 pp.
Simón Bolívar, South American Liberator. By Hildegarde
Angell. W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., New York, 1930. ix, 296 pp.

Three interesting sketches of Hispanic-American heroes have appeared recently. The first is a large, thin volume by the French ambassador to the United States. In describing it one hardly knows what to mention first, whether the illustrations or the text. The book has been decorated by Jean Charlot in a most profuse and curious fashion, but without reading the text one cannot comprehend the significance of the illustrations. On the other hand, the text is difficult to understand because of the abstruse, peculiar, and fantastic treatment. The whole work con-stitutes a lyrical drama, yet it is hardly a satisfactory play for any stage because it needs so many mechanical contrivances to produce it. Nevertheless the premiere produc-

tion occurred in Berlin in May, 1930.

In reading the play for the first time the reviewer had the feeling that this was like the dream of a diseased mind, like the ravings of a maniac attempting to picture to himself the trials of an idealized Columbus. second reading the picture became clearer, and one sees the triumph of the patience, the persistence, and the faith of the Discoverer over the agents of traditional skepticism, conservative unbelief, ribald contumaciousness, and ignorant opposition. The play is well worth a careful study.

The second volume is the story of a great navigator long hidden by the shadow of Columbus. Like Columbus, the date of Magellan's birth is not exactly known (though it may have occurred in 1480), and the place of his burial, like the great Navigator's, is also unknown. A foreigner in the service of Spain, as Columbus probably was, he sought and failed to secure aid for his enterprise from his native Portugal, just as Columbus had done. Like the Admiral, too, he was both a dreamer and a man

of action, showing patience, perseverance, and daring. Very little is known of the early life and deeds of Fernão de Magalhães, as he is called in Portugal, though he apparently came of a noble family and was well educated. From 1509 to 1512 he served the Portuguese King in India, and during part of 1513 he fought the Moors in north Africa, where he received a leg wound which made him lame for life. Failing to win adequate recognition and promotion for his services, he went to Spain in October, 1517. On March 22d of the next year he reached an agreement with Charles V which made possible the fulfilment of The result was that on September 20, 1519, Magellan left Spain in five ships, furnished and equipped partly by the Crown. Three months later, on December 13th, the expedition reached the Bay of Rio de Janeiro. Continuing southward they put into La Plata and then moved to St. Julian at about 49 degrees south latitude, where Magellan crushed a mutiny and spent the southern winter. On October 21, 1520, the fleet entered the strait which bears his name, emerging 38 days later upon the South Sea. Then sailing northwest for 98 days, the adventurers arrived in the vicinity of the Philippines in March, 1521. On the 27th of April Magellan was killed in a fight with the natives of Mactan, but the survivors, under Sebastián del Cano, continued around the globe, reaching San Lúcar, Spain, on September 6, 1522. Considering his early travels in the Malay regions, Magellan himself had nearly completed the circumnavigation of the earth.

The author of this volume has marred the telling of an interesting story by using long paragraphs, by repeating often and needlessly many common facts, and by entangling the reader in involved academic explanations. Generally speaking, the last part of the book is more interesting and better written than the first part. An appendix of six pages, which is really an extended footnote, shows, among other things, the close parallel between the mutinies at St. Julien in Magellan's fleet and in Drake's fleet. The

index is good.

On the jacket of the third volume are statements of two teachers of Hispanic-American history highly praising this most recent life in English of Bolivar. And in the main the reviewer agrees with them. However, the book is not as interestingly written as the biography of the Liberator by Ybarra, nor is it as dramatic as the life by Vaucaire, nor does it contribute anything essentially new about the hero. Perhaps the chief excuse for the appearance of such a work is the fact that the centenary of Bolívar's death is to be celebrated this winter throughout the Western Hemisphere. Certainly very little in addition can be added to the already known facts of his life until a trunkful of letters written to Bolívar by women friends can be published by the Venezuelan government. However, the book is the most scholarly life of the great Patriot in English, though whether the author has used the numerous volumes cited on pages 275 to 284 it is difficult to tell; one is at least led to believe it. A chronological table admirably correlates the several Hispanic-American movements for independence and shows Bolívar's contemporary relation to them. The index is far from complete. On the whole, Miss Angell has accomplished a difficult task in an excellent manner.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

George Washington University.

The Paris Commune. An Episcde in the History of the Socialist Movement. By Edward S. Mason. The Mac-millan Co., New York, 1930. ix, 370 pp.

This is an interesting contribution, not so much perhaps to the history of the Commune as to our knowledge of its influence upon the socialist movement. Indeed, it is not Professor Mason's purpose to write a history of the Commune, but rather to review certain phases of this tragic episode from the best French accounts and with fresh material from the archives, in the light of its interpretation by Karl Marx in his Civil War in France. The thesis is familiar. It is generally accepted in other than socialist and reactionary circles that the Commune was the result of a feeling of betrayal among the radicals following the surrender of Paris to the Germans, and of hostility to the monarchist National Assembly. These and other political motives ob-scure such socialist influences as were contributed by the sections of the First International and by the followers of Proudhon to the causes of the revolution of March 18, 1871, although, as the author concedes, the men who guarded the canons on the heights of Montmartre and the members of the Central Committee of the National Guard were mostly of proletarian origins. The origins of the Commune, and probably its history, at least, until the supplementary elections of April 16th, do not support the socialist interpretation of it as an example of the Marxian theory of the inevitable class conflict and revolution. Only the vaguest of ideas existed as to the meaning of the Commune.

Professor Mason does not distinguish clearly the earlier and later periods of the Commune. He considers in detail each reform, from the abolition of night work in the bakeries to the proposed co-operative control and management of shops, and he recognizes the increasing socialist tendencies after the refusal of the moderate ele-ments to vote on April 16th. Nevertheless, he implies that the socialist interpretation does not hold for either period. There is here a fundamental inconsistency which suggests that the author has not accepted the conclusion which seems the logical consequence of his evidence. He writes (page "While ostensibly fighting for a decentralized republic, there is abundant evidence that in the minds of most this struggle was one between labor and capital, the proletariat and the bourgeoisie." What, it may be asked, s the difference between this statement and the socialist "legend" of the Commune?

In his analysis of the effect and influence of the Commune upon the socialist movement, the author is on firmer ground. The revolutionary and moderate wings used it and interpreted its lessons in ways to serve their own purposes. The former naturally followed Marx's lead, but Lenin and other Bolshevist leaders were most interested in drawing lessons from the mistakes of the Commune for the strategy and tactics of the class struggle in Russia. The Commune continues to figure largely in the propaganda of the Com-

munist Party.

There are a few slips. The murder of Victor Noir did not occur on December 16, 1870 (page 8). Dréo was not a secretary of the government of September 4 (page 69). In general, however, this study, which is published under the auspices of the Bureau of International Research of Harvard University and Radcliffe College, is a welcome

and important addition to the small body of careful writing on the history of the social revolutionary movement. E. MALCOLM CARROLL.

Duke University,

An Economic History of Europe, 1760-1930. By Arthur

Birnie. Dial Press, New York, 1930. xi, 289 pp.
Mr. Birnie, of the University of Edinburgh, has endeavored to compress into two hundred and eighty-nine pages European economic history from 1760 to 1930—a period marked by tremendous economic changes. The result is a textbook of a rather superficial nature, yet the beginner will find the book to be an easy "first step," and the more advanced student will find it to be a useful guide.

Instead of tracing the story chronologically, the author treats the matter by topics. The first five chapters deal with "revolutions" in industry, agriculture, transport, commerce, and commercial policy. Contrary to the space allotment usually allowed in similar books, Mr. Birnie devotes only thirteen pages to the "industrial revolution," which covers industry from 1760 to 1930, while he gives twenty pages to agrarian changes. A chapter on the co-operative movement later in the book runs to twenty-nine pages, while the chapter, "Some Recent Tendencies," which includes economic imperialism, trusts, and the Russian experiment, is limited to sixteen pages. Considerable attention is paid to labor, and chapters on money and banking, profit sharing, and social legislation are included.

It is always possible to find flaws in a book of this nature, and it is hardly to be expected that two persons should agree in every respect on the choice of material, method of treatment, and points of view expressed. It may be of use, however, to criticize certain phases of the book, or at least to state in what respect the reviewer's opinions differ from those of the author. In the first place, it should be noted that one of the greatest difficulties in writing a book of this kind is to describe economic institutions in a realistic

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This Mr. Birnie has not always done. In the case of trade unions (page 126ff), one feels that the author has limited his discussion to the outward manifestations of unions, and that he has not described their inner organization, their methods of action, the point of view of the workers, and the results of their activity. The economic loss on account of strikes is not treated in any detail. In the second place, one finds the book shot through with opinions that are those of the classical economist and should not find expression in the work of a historian. This is particularly evident in the discussion of mercantilism (page 66ff). The bullionist theory is mentioned, and then all mercantilism is condemned because precious metal was considered to be wealth. Mercantilism had another side, how-ever, which taught that national production should be universal and that goods should be of a high quality. Who is to condemn such a policy? "Exports were encouraged by bounties and by the artificial stimulation of domestic agriculture and industry" (page 67). What should be included under "artificial stimulation"? If argued logically, one might say that using fertilizer is an artificial stimulant to agriculture. Where is the line to be drawn? nomic historian should be shy in aligning himself with economic theorists. In the third place, Mr. Birnie, in his discussion of Russia, makes no mention of the Five-Year Plan; in his chapter on modern tendencies makes no mention of the efforts of governments to plan economic development, and, perhaps saddest of all, Fascist economic policies are totally ignored. In the fourth place, the bibli-ography, although wisely limited to a few outstanding books, might well contain Ballot's work on the French industrial revolution; Chase, Dunn, and Tugwell, Soviet Russia in the Second Decade; Gide and Rist, History of Economic Doctrines; Paul Louis, Histoire du mouvement syndical en France; and Lorwin's work on the international labor movement.

S. B. CLOUGH.

Columbia University.

The Napoleonic Wars and German Nationalism in Austria. By Walter Consuelo Langsam, Ph.D., Instructor in History in Columbia University. Columbia University Press, New York, 1930. 241 pp.

The stirring story of Prussia's regeneration between 1806 and 1813 has often been told. It has remained for a young American scholar, however, to tell the tale of the contemporaneous movement in German Austria. During the Napoleonic wars there developed in the Germans of Austria a strong sense of kinship with the Germans of the Reich, an intense, if not a deep, consciousness of German nationality. Some looked forward to a powerful, united German nation, which should include even the Germanic-speaking Dutch and Swiss, but should exclude Hungarians, Slavs, and Italians. Others, however, presumably the majority, stopped short of the thorght of political union.

If the Emperor Francis II, cautious ruler of diverse

peoples, naturally held aloof from the German nationalist movement in Austria, others in government circles threw themselves into it with enthusiasm. Among these were the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Count Stadion, and the Emperor's brothers, the Archdukes Charles and John. Closely associated with them in the movement were Gentz, the publicist, and Baron von Hormayr. "By 1809 the government of Austria was controlled by men of a decidedly nationalist bent," and under their leadership books and pamphlets, newspapers, manifestoes, and popular songs fanned the fires of nationalism. It was in a spirit of exalta-tion and self-sacrifice that the Austrian people entered on the renewed war with Napoleon in 1809. The defeats that followed, however, dampened the ardor of the nationalist movement, and, though it blazed up again in 1812 and 1813, the flames burned with lesser intensity. With Napoleon's defeat and the ascendancy of the anti-nationalistic Metternich it seemed to die out; but the embers were there, waiting to be kindled in the conflagration of 1848.

Dr. Langsam has done a useful piece of work. The names of the Archdukes John and Charles, Stadion, Hormayr, Castelli, Collin, and other Austrian patriots should

henceforth be placed beside those of such leaders of Prussia's regeneration as Stein, Fichte, and the poet Arndt. But nationalism is a nebulous, elusive influence, and it is possible that Dr. Langsam has unconsciously somewhat overemphasized its significance. It is possible that he has not sufficiently recognized the influence of the sentiment of loyalty to the Hapsburgs, of fear, pugnacity, and other elements of the war psychosis, in rousing the spirit of the people of German Austria in their hour of trial. Nationalist sentiment died down with suspicious rapidity when danger was over. In any case, the book would have benefited from a chapter of conclusions attempting to evaluate the significance of the movement. Nevertheless, Dr. Langsam's combination of sound scholarship and literary ability makes this book a treat to the reviewer.

JONATHAN F. SCOTT. Washington Square College, New York University.

Studies in Diplomatic History. By Sir James Headlam-Morley. Alfred H. King, Inc., New York, 1930. 303 pp.

In this posthumously published series of studies we have an interesting combination of the pursuit of historical truth for its own sake, with research devoted to serving a practical end. As historical adviser to the British Foreign Office, Headlam-Morley was called upon to present the background for the discussion of such problems as the reduction of armament at the Washington Conference, the disposition of the Straits at the Lausanne Conference, the attainment of security at the Locarno Conference, and the making of a treaty adjusting relations between Great Britain and the new kingdom of Egypt (1926). Further illumination on these subjects is shed by other studies on the British Government and Arbitration, Treaties of Guarantee, the Guarantee to Greece (1863), and the acquisition of Cyprus. These eight essays are admirable illustrations of the manner in which the statesman may profitably consult the expert. Long and widely known for his historical scholarship, Headlam-Morley has brought to his use of documentary material a breadth of judgment and a critical view, with both urbanity and candor, which establish confidence in the high quality of his work. It is to be hoped that the influence of his qualities was strong, and may ever remain with those who exercise the diplomacy.

His presentation is obviously not for beginners, but for those already substantially acquainted with the historical subjects under consideration. All of the essays are marked, however, by simplicity of treatment, clarity, and vitality. Careful analysis and thorough definition of terms characterize his use of evidence. Headlam-Morley's views are those of the realist tinged, perhaps, with a mild cynicism; but he is not pessimistic, nor is he incorrigibly conservative. Of his country's diplomacy he writes: "There appears to be an uncertainty of touch, a vacillation and indecision, which is undoubtedly very inconvenient to those nations who desire to co-operate with us, and which easily may give an impression of weakness...but was it not wiser, even at the cost of consistency and at the risk of exposing ourselves to the charge of weakness and indecisiveness, to recognize the new conditions and to adapt our aims to them rather than, by a display of force, obstinately to insist on older ideals?"

Cautious in approaching the so-called new diplomacy, hailed by the idealist with such confident enthusiasm, he yet recognizes that "a new diplomatic technique" is coming into being. He emphasizes the profound effect of the flood of light which recent publications have thrown upon every detail of European diplomacy, and admits that "the unvarnished record is the most complete condemnation" of the old system. Whether the diplomacy of the future will be superior to that of the present is still a question. War has by no means gone, but the "almost universal agreement that the preservation of peace should be the supreme object of endeavor" is an indication of progress in the elimination of war. Although it may well be that the world is suffering from the accumulated memory of the past, the study of diplomatic history will show that peace, "like

every other object of policy, can be achieved not by one simple process, but only by ceaselessly struggling along diverse paths."

LAURENCE B. PACKARD.

Amherst College.

Joseph Fouché. The Portrait of a Politician. By Stefan Zweig. Translated from the German by Eden and Cedar Paul. The Viking Press, New York, 1930. 327 pp.

The author of this interesting study of Napoleon's great minister of police is a native of Vienna, and has become known on this side of the Atlantic through his plays and his sketches of great literary figures, as, for instance, Dickens, Dostoeffsky, and Balzac. Now he turns to biographies of great world figures, of which the present volume upon Fouché is one. The volume is an attractive one, with several good portraits of Napoleon, Talleyrand, Robespierre, and of the Duke of Otranto himself.

In various places the author has stated the origin of his interest in the subject. These reasons are quite compelling and arouse our sympathy. In the first place, his career was remarkable and his tenancy of power amazing, considering the times in which he lived; secondly, he was hated by his contemporaries, and, in the opinion of Herr Zweig, has been unjustly dealt with by historians writing since Fouché's lifetime; lastly, since he never published his memoirs, he has become as great a mystery as any of those tangled veins of circumstance to unravel which was frequently the lot of a minister of police.

Certainly Fouché possessed uncanny powers as a politician. Beginning life at the outset of the Revolution as

Certainly Fouché possessed uncanny powers as a politician. Beginning life at the outset of the Revolution as a schoolmaster and priest, as did Sieyes and Talleyrand, he became in three years thereafter the ruthless plunderer of the property of the Church, the destroyer of Lyons, and ruthless proconsul of the Convention at Toulon. Yet he survived to strengthen the opponents of Robespierre in the Thermidorian revolt of 1794, to aid in ushering in the

Bonaparte era of 1799, and to become, as minister of both the Consulate and the Empire, a custodian of power scarcely inferior to that of his master. Nor did he crash with the Corsican, as did the great figures of Ney and Carnot, but remained to usher in the Bourbon, Louis XVIII.

To survive such sweeping overturns of government, such tumultuous substitutions of one group for another, required a master craftsman in the game of deceit and a consummate master of trimming. Such a person Fouché undoubtedly was, in the highest degree. Napoleon called him "the ablest man I have ever come across," and the "only real minister of state" among his many servants. Such testimony goes far to refute, as the author asserts, the many comments which attempt to consign Minister Fouché to an unsavory oblivion. Few men have ever sensed what was in the political wind as he, or have been able to make themselves as useful to a régime.

The great questions of Fouche's career: of his part in the overthrow of Robespierre, of his contribution to the coup d'etat of the 18 Brumaire, of his alleged power over Napoleon himself, and his effectiveness in the overthrow of the Empire—these are historical problems of far-reaching importance and of great difficulty, which not even Herr Zweig's brilliant and entertaining book can settle. Truly the furtive, tireless activities of the man made him always dangerous to an opponent, while his almost unshakeable poise made him an enigma to all parties. He had no scruples, no loyalties to individuals, and was thus free from hesitancy at disposing of former friends who maneuvered themselves across his pathway to power. And yet his sudden fall from power, immediately after the Restoration of 1815, after such a skilful ushering in of the Bourbons, raises many doubts as to his former achievements. His collapse and disgrace make us wonder if, after all, it was so much Joseph Fouché who had worked all the miracles of the era just past, or whether he was merely one of the Talleyrand type of schemers who, skilful and fortunate in many episodes, was logically brought to bay at last.

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To use a method of argument used by a historian writing of the Battle of Waterloo: Napoleon could not have won the day because another series of events was preparing, in which he was to have no part. The individual had disturbed the balance of history; the forces which he had helped to set in motion were about to roll him down. So For a brief day he had had his day, had denied the validity of honor, of justice, and of humanity to his fellows. In due time those who had some, at least, of the scruples which he lacked were bound to assist in his destruction. And in the dawning of a new age, in which tradition and legitimacy were once more to hold sway, there was no room for Fouché.

All of which is not to judge adversely Herr Zweig's vivid portrait; he has made the versatile, crafty man live in his pages, and has succeeded in arousing interest and curiosity in a most remarkable figure. The style is lively, and the story moves with rapidity in its atmosphere of high intrigue

and limitless ambition.

COURTNEY R. HALL.

Adelphi College.

Liberty and Despotism in Spanish-America. By Cecil Jane.
The Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1929. xii, 177 pp.
Political Theory and Law in Medieval Spain. By Marie R.

Madden. Fordham University Press, New York, 1930.

xv, 198 pp.

The first volume is a philosophical discussion of the in-terrelation of natural factors existing in the Hispanic-American states which help to account for the political conditions found there. Dr. Jane shows that the population of the Spanish-American republics is "divided into parties, each of which is actuated by devotion to a principle. The one holds that liberty, the other that efficient administration, is the greatest good. To the one, the diminution of the power of the executive is the end to be sought; to the other, the exaltation of that power. To the one, the rights of the individual are all important; to the other, the stability of the state. It is not that the one deliberately seeks the disintegration of society, or that the other deliberately seeks the oppression of the private citizen, but that the one would prefer disintegration to tyranny, and the other tyranny to disintegration" (page 15). These conditions are inherent in the Spanish character, and, since efficiency can best be obtained by despotism, then despotism is not only tolerated, but sought after as a panacea for political evils. The desire for liberty of the individual and efficiency in government have been the twin ideals of both the Spaniards and the Spanish-Americans.

This thesis has been outlined by Dr. Jane in the first two chapters, entitled, "The Political Character of the Republics" and "Liberty and Efficiency." The remaining eight chapters are historical in treatment. Chapter III, "The Character of the Spanish Empire," and Chapter IV, "The Maintenance of the Spanish Empire," constitute excellent brief summaries of the Spanish colonial system. Chapter V, "The Popular Conception of the War of Independence," and Chapter VI, "The True Character of the War of Independence," show that the revolts were simply attempts to realize cherished ideals and ideas which were not derived from "any external sources." Chapter VII, "The Establishment of Republics," attempts to prove that the founders of the new states and their governments were more Spanish in characteristics, ideas, and ideals than they were French, or English, or American. Chapter VIII, "Freedom in Spanish-America," and Chapter IX, "The Search for Efficient Government," show that the people of Hispanic-America are still striving for perfection in government. Chapter X (the last), "The Future of Spanish-America," brings out clearly the fact that the Spanish-Americans must work out their own political salvation and can expect little outside assistance of value.

Certainly the author has proven his contentions to his own satisfaction, but to many of his readers his views will seem unconvincing and even fantastic. Much more study is necessary before it can be said definitely that it was not from outside influence-from France, from England, from the United States-that the modern state systems of Hispanic-America were shaped. To many readers, also, the overstress and repetition of certain expressions will be unconvincing. Because the book is so crowded with interesting statements, one feels the lack of an index. Carelessness is evident in the omission of accents from many Spanish names and words. But despite these defects, if such they can be called, the volume is thought-provoking and should be read by every student of Hispanic-American political institutions.

In the second volume Professor Millar, who writes the foreword, points out that the law of Protestant Englishspeaking countries is largely Catholic in its origin and tundamental principles, while the legal traditions of the Latin and Catholic countries is fundamentally pagan in its underlying philosophy and anti-Christian in many of its principles. This view Miss Madden holds, but she believes that it is in the Spanish culture, which is Catholic, that the profound problems of law and government should be sought. She has attempted in this work to analyze the bolitical theory and law found in such Spanish codes as the Lex Visigothorum (or Forum Iudiciorum), the Fuero Real, and Las Siete Partidas of Castile; the Usatges of Barcelona; the Costumbres of Tortusa; and the many municipal fueros. The study of these must be prerequisite to an un-derstanding of the Recopilación de las Leyes de Indias of These earlier codes were inspired largely by Visigothic customs, Augustinian conceptions of the state, and the Politics of Aristotle. In the political organization which resulted, Justice was "the norm and method of regulating civil society," and it furnished the justification for the existence of the civil state. The idea that the state was an entity, "either abstract or concrete, to which people owed allegiance and which had rights over the people composing it, never entered into the concept of Spanish legal thinking." This, according to Miss Madden, was largely the character of Spanish political thinking from earliest

The volume is divided into two parts: part one deals with principles of theory, and part two makes application and describes the administrative machinery of Medieval Spain. The whole work constitutes an interesting introduction to Spanish political history and to Hispanic-American political institutions. However, it is not always easy reading, and some persons may perhaps feel that the Catholic Church has been unduly praised as a medium for the preserving and transmitting of political thought.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

George Washington University.

A History of the Modern Church. By J. W. C. Wand. T. Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1930. x, 314 pp. ne and the Papacy. By Gilbert Bagnani. T. Y. Crowell Rome and the Papacy.

Company, New York, 1930. xv, 259 pp. The publishing house of Crowell has issued two new volumes in its series of important books on religion. The themes of the new volumes are well chosen, for at present we badly need scholarly treatments of the history of the modern Church and a history of the Roman papacy in moderate compass. Alike in format, the books vary widely in spirit, approach, and execution.

The Dean of Oriel College is a thorough master of his theme, and all his pages clearly reflect a careful and thoughtful scholarship. He clearly recognizes that the Church is living in an evolving secular world, whose changes strongly influence the Church, herself an evolving religious organization. The story of the modern Church is firmly related to its contemporary settings in succeeding centuries. The chapters are short, full of detail that gives real substance to the text, and present a well-balanced account of the major theme. The twenty-three chapters are not strictly chronological, nor do they follow a single thread. Rather, they present the main movements in a roughly developed time series. It is welcome to see chapters on the Eastern Church included, as well as one on American Christianity. The modern movements of reunion and missionary endeavor are appraised, and the concluding chapter deals with the desire of the Church to free herself from excessive interference on the part of the state. The

tone of the volume is restrained and impartial, while the style is pleasing, though by no means inspiring. While the reviewer might dissent from some views or the author; e. g., overemphasis on the Greek element in the Renaissance, he cannot but praise this successful attempt to compress a vast theme in so small a book. Both student and general reader may well thank the learned author for his useful and instructive volume.

It is hard to know what to say of Bagnani's book on the The book is well written and as provocative as Papacy. the publishers hint it may be. Glittering generalizations abound on almost every page. Much that seems plain and acceptable to the author is by no means so plain and acceptable to the reviewer. "The City-State can exist only in conditions of comparative isolation, both physical and intellectual, and its cults can be accepted only so long as the inhabitants of the city consider all other peoples, nations, and languages complete barbarians." "Feudalism... may indeed be considered an almost perfect social system. Such quotations could be multiplied almost indefinitely. While a historian may legitimately use broad generaliza-tions to sum up or give structure to his theme, such biased, personal, and dogmatic statements cannot but reflect a propagandist attitude rather than a historical one. Indeed, one suspects that such sweeping statements are possible only because the author has never studied the subject at first hand. There is little or no factual background merely a series of general propositions, not by any means accurate, to cover the historical episodes related in his rather arbitrarily chosen chapters. Just what benefit is to be gained from reading a book like this it is difficult to say, unless one finds pleasure in conducting heated arguments with one's self over statements that arouse ire. One might almost call these chapters imaginative essays on a series of themes connected with the development of the Papacy. Certainly the author could not have read and digested the authorities cited in a bibliography which abounds in brilliant works by distinguished historians. IRVING W. RAYMOND.

Columbia University.

Thomas B. Reed: Parliamentarian. By William A. Robinson. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1930. 423 pp.

A huge man, both lengthwise and sidewise, with rotund, rosy cheeks and a high-pitched voice, once said that a "statesman is a dead politician." The man was Thomas B. Reed, whose death in 1902 admitted him to his own category of statesmanship, although he had voluntarily for several years ceased to be a live politician. For more than twenty years in the House of Representatives, he delighted his Republican associates and terrorized his Democratic enemies. If nothing was more terrible than the mockery of Voltaire, nothing was more terrifying to political sophists than the ridicule of Reed. "Czar" Reed, as he was dubbed, did not utter mere shallow wise-cracks; his wit and sarcasm penetrated the protective word covering of unsound aims, and unfortunately occasionally his sneers withered the

healthy bloom of sound projects.

Tom Reed is probably chiefly remembered as the man responsible for the reform of the House of Representatives, which in its methods of procedure after the Civil War became an American version of the "unreformed British Parliament." As page after page of his biography relates the man's epigrammatic comments, always humorous and often brilliant, one wonders if his chief contribution was not the restraining in the House of rash, silly, unwise, and time-wasting vocalism. The verbose orator, whose remark, "There he sits, dumb, mute, and silent," was punctuated by Reed's drawling "And he ain't saying a word, either"; probably trimmed the superfluous flourishes of his oratory thereafter. In December, 1889, after a membership in the House of twelve years, his sharp discerning thought and speech won him the office of Speaker of the House. In the face of spirited and often fierce opposition he introduced urgently needed reforms in the procedure of the House. The parliamentary battle which occurred has been described by many talented historians, and never more effectually than by Professor Robinson. During Reed's

régime "the parliamentary fiction that a man present could truthfully declare himself absent" was destroyed, along with various other obstructive tactics, which had enabled the minority to prevent the passage of legislation by the majority. Reed's fondness for politics lessened after his unsuccessful bid for the Republican presidential nomination in 1896, and in 1899 he retired to the practice of law in New York City. Before his death in 1902 he amassed a small fortune.

Professor Robinson's careful and adequate research has been embodied in clear and pleasing prose. The author describes rather than evaluates the life of Reed. He does not clutter the book with his own sprightly observations. None are needed. Reed's wit sparkles in the profusely quoted remarks on almost every page. The result is that the personality of Reed outlines itself clearly against the chronological background of his life. The author's self-effacement and method of handling his material reproduce the flow of a man's life, and he is happily lacking in the tendency to depict a man as a sustained ethical judgment. As to the emphasis upon Reed's political life, it seems the proper treatment of a figure, who, in his last tortured, delirious days, argued legal questions with his doctors, imagined himself as speaking on the floor of the House, and feverishly once more presided as Speaker. The book is generously and felicitously illustrated, and has a splendid format.

SAMUEL MCKEE, JR.

Columbia University.

Church and State in Massachusetts from 1740 to 1833. By Jacob C. Meyer. Western Reserve University Press, Cleveland, 1930.

The Great Awakening in Virginia, 1740-1790. By Wesley M. Gewehr. Duke University Press, Durham, North Carolina, 1930.

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world, but here too it sometimes faltered; and in the pages of these two books we read now of its halting steps and then of its triumphant march.

A traditional inheritance of an established church fastened this institution on Massachusetts, and the Congregationalists held this supremacy for two centuries. Re-luctantly other faiths were permitted to live, but it was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that they were strong enough to wage a fight for a free church which culminated successfully nearly one hundred years later.

The Great Awakening rent asunder the Congregationalists and strengthened the Baptists. Political exigencies forced England to side with the minority groups in Massachusetts in an attempt to weaken the refractory province. The growth of the Methodists and the identification of the dissenting groups with Republicanism drew the line more snarply between them and the Congregationalists, who were identified with Federalism. Another split in the Congregationalist Church between liberal and conservative factions broke its declining strength, and in 1833 its privileged position was destroyed with the adoption of complete disestablishment.

Meyer's historical approach is almost exclusively religious. Gewehr's study is more sociological in scope. In Massachusetts the Episcopal Church was a minority group, struggling for more equitable recognition. In Virginia it was the established church, struggling to repress the growth of the minor Baptists and Methodists. As a result of the loosening of orthodox church ties that came on the morning of the Great Awakening the Episcopaleans waned, and the successful challenge to established institutions that came with the Revolution included churches as well. The Great Awakening spurred on more than a fight for religious equality; it released a flood of energy that spent itself in

various educational and humanitarian enterprises. Both these books, I feel, do not take into consideration the growth of a secular spirit in the eighteenth century that promoted an indifference to religious questions. The sharpness was taken off the edge of these questions for a growing number of people so that they seemed dull and unin-teresting. Perhaps also we tend to ascribe too much of the humanitarian activity of this century to the Great Awakening. Other forces operated to the same end, but it is true that this stirring of the torpid spirit effected more quickly those changes that seemed already fated. It is studies like these, even though dryly written, which show the flowering of a more generous American mind.

College of the City of New York.

The American Peace Crusade, 1815-1860. By Merle Eugene Curti, Associate Professor of History, Smith College. Duke University Press, Durham, 1929. 250 pp.

MICHAEL KRAUS.

In view of the persistent discussion of proposed roads to world-wide and perpetual peace during the last decade, this well-documented study of the organized peace movement in the United States possesses a peculiar timeliness. The author limits his discussion to the period from the close of the War of 1812 to the eve of the Civil War, but promises a later volume in which he hopes "to correlate it (the peace movement) with economic, social, and cultural forces working towards internationalism, and to gauge the influence of pacifists and internationalists in breaking down the American tradition of isolation." When this promise is redeemed, it will be interesting to see how far Professor Curti thinks the American people have travelled along the road of international mindedness and just how much in earnest they are about world peace. Though this first volume is limited to a fragment of the whole subject with which its author is necessarily concerned, it possesses a definite unity as a result of the judicious arrangement of material and the convincing presentation of the efforts of the various peace societies and their leaders. Whether the narrative deals with the Massachusetts Peace Society, the American Peace Society, the New England Non-Resistance Society, or the League of Universal Brotherhood, the influential workers stand forth as something more than mere symbols of a cause. One comes to feel almost well acquainted with the bluff, robust, good-humored William Ladd, who abandoned a plan for the peaceful abolition of slavery to become an earnest apostle of world peace, or with Elihu Burritt, the "learned blacksmith," who dreamed at his work of a League of Universal Brotherhood, and then convinced men that it could be realized. Equally familiar are the personalities of the conservative and suave Beckwith, the radical and contentious Garrison, the determined and single-minded Wright, each striving in his own way to realize the ultimate objective of the cause. The work of their generations was preparatory, yet they ac-complished much that was of lasting value. They solved difficult problems of organization and finance, established the machinery for publicity, contributed a body of brilliant arguments against war, enlisted international co-operation in their activities, and worked out practical plans looking toward the ultimate establishment of world peace. It was William Jay, the New York jurist, who first urged the inclusion in international treaties of stipulated arbitration clauses. William Ladd's plans for a "congress of powers" and an international court are not far different from the proposals translated into reality at the Hague eighty years after the New Englander penned his Essay on a Congress of Nations. These pioneers of international peace deserve the spirited and sympathetic account of their crusade which Professor Curti has written.

JOHN A. KROUT.

Columbia University.

Abraham Lincoln, His Path to the Presidency. 263 pp. Abraham Lincoln, The Year of His Presidency. pp. By Albert Shaw. Review of Reviews Corporation, New York, 1929. Set, \$8.00.

Every good American now owes a debt of gratitude to Dr. Albert Shaw, historian and Editor of the Review of Reviews, for his two volumes on Abraham Lincoln. These volumes are as important as they are different, and they are very different. For a quarter of a century Dr. Shaw has been collecting material for this work, which will ultimately be carried on through the Civil War to the death of the great Emancipator. Here one finds a collection of some five hundred contemporary cartoons and other illustrations, some of which are so rare that they have hitherto been known only to a handful of collectors. Plus these amazingly frank pictorial masterpieces of subtlety and humor, there is Dr. Shaw's vigorous, sometimes brilliant, biography. Here is the pre-war scene itself, drawn by the artists of Lincoln's time, about the men and issues of his time, for the people of his time. Just as the political caricatures of 1930 are an important expression of public feeling, so were those of Lincoln's day a powerful weapon that could destroy a man or lift him to prominence. In fact, these early purveyors of public opinion carried more thought, their ridicule was more biting, their sarcasm more subtle, their applause more calculated. And such an array of distinguished statesmen: Clay, Webster, Calhoun, Jackson, Greeley, Douglas, Jefferson Davis, and a host of others!

After careful reading of these two volumes, Lincoln will

no longer appear as a mystical character who suddenly became great. Slowly he advanced, very slowly. "He became a presidential possibility by virtue of a thirty-year period of testing and maturing, through experiences that lifted him to the rank of a well-seasoned statesman, as he turned his fiftieth year." Then, in the second volume, Dr. Shaw plainly shows that "Lincoln, having climbed the long ascent to this field of presidential candidates, must go through the further process, with all its hazards and complications, that finally leaves all rivals behind, bringing him to the White House in a time of great emergency It is a great story; it is a moving tale that has appealed to millions of our countrymen in the last two generations, for in the last half century some 2,700 books and pamphlets

have been written about Lincoln.

Lincoln enjoyed public life, its hazards notwithstanding. He became a lawyer and interested himself in railroads, canals, and westward development in general. He never had much interest in money. His mind was political and his chief interest in life was to be the representative of his fellow-citizens in public office. In the first of Dr. Shaw's volumes there is drawn an excellent picture of the influences and experiences that shaped Lincoln's career down to 1860. Presidential politics is the core of Dr. Shaw's biographical sketch.

No one can fail to appreciate the rich collection of cartoons, with their explanatory captions. These cartoons were, of course, familiar to Lincoln, and must have entertained him and caused him to think about the various situations. "I have hoped," writes Dr. Shaw, in his preface, "that the use of these illustrations would not only awaken interest and afford entertainment, but that they would also help to give reality to the study of American history and politics, thus serving an educational purpose." We suggest that every class in American history in the high schools and colleges should have copies of this work within easy reach of the students.

With so many Lincoln biographies on the market, one wonders if anything new can be said about the Civil War President. Dr. Shaw has taken the old facts and given them new life. He has made available a collection of contemporary cartoons—of the utmost historical importance—which have never before been seen by the reading public. He has used his imagination. Here is scholarship, color, enthusiasm, and vividness.

NATHAN G. GOODMAN.

Philadelphia, Pa.

Book Notes

Simon de Montfort. By Charles Bémont. A new edition, translated by E. F. Jacob. Oxford University Press, New York, 1930. xxxix, 303 pp. \$4.50. Forty-six years after its first publication in French as a doctoral thesis at the Sorbonne, this important study has reappeared in English, fortified by full comprehension of the intervening scholarship. M. Bémont has also had the good fortune to have as translator the scholar of this generation who has done most to clear up the complexities of the years 1258-1267, during which Simon played his most conspicuous part. The volume is, therefore, quite indispensable to the serious student of that second attempt to curb English monarchical despotism, which almost accidentally introduced representative parliaments into the governmental machinery.

This book belongs in the category of minute, detailed scholarship of the medieval English constitution, to which the pen of Maitland alone has proved capable of imparting charm along with authority. It is easy to understand the difficulties. The ground has been worked with almost unparalleled devotion. Its sources, manuscript and otherwise, are often scattered and hardly accessible. Contributory scholarship has often been fragmentary, even when valuable. The scholar, then, who is qualified, as is M. Bémont, to aspire to a definitive work, is almost in honor bound to include immense amounts of data in his discourse and its footnotes to protect himself, to save effort to his scholarly readers, and to do justice to his predecessors. The result can hardly be described as easily readable, but that can be forgiven in so important a work. In it the student will find, backed by most impressive erudition, the story of a startling foreigner who married a king's sister and, having become a leading power in the realm, set about so vigorously and skilfully to set constitutional limitations on the royal despotism, that in life he had the friendship of such men as Grosseteste and Adam Marsh, and in defeat and death rose in the esteem of the lowly to the rank of saint and martyr.—B.

One of the most interesting of the numerous recent studies relating to India and Indian life is that of Dr. Paul W. Paustian, entitled, Canal Irrigation in the Punjab (Columbia University Press, New York, 1930. 179 pp.). Taking the province of Punjab as his specific example, Dr. Paustian gives a detailed and scholarly account of one of the most tangible economic aspects of British-Indian relationships. After reviewing the gradual and remarkably skilful unfolding of the British irrigation projects for the Punjab from 1849 to 1927, the author studies the

relationship between rate of population increase and rate of available reclaimed land increase. He shows that the development of irrigation projects thus far has outstripped the population increase, but he believes this to be only a temporary circumstance, since ignorance and tradition will soon enough recreate the problem of population pressure. The continued use of primitive methods and tools on the restricted and relatively small holdings prevents the secur-ing of the full yield per acre from the irrigated land, and helps to keep the standard of living at a low point. Finally, Dr. Paustian shows that the irrigation schemes have been an undoubted financial success for the government, although the peasants still must pay quite dearly for the irrigation services. Much of this tax money, however, is returned to the natives in the form of other public developments, such as roads, public health, and education. Since the future economic progress of the province depends largely on the effective operation and administration of the complex canal network, the Punjab "has much to gain from a continued co-operation with the British in the economic development of its potential resources." It would have been interesting had Dr. Paustian included a brief comparison of economic life and conditions in another province, where the British were less active in pushing irrigation projects. The volume, however, is tremendously stimulating and should provide the impetus for a number of more detailed and exhaustive investigations of the individual phases of the subject .- L.

The increasing interest of Americans in the international relations of the Pacific regions has made highly opportune relations of the Facine regions has made nighty opportune the appearance of a volume such as Professor George H. Blakeslee's *The Pacifie Area* (World Peace Foundation, Boston, 1929. 224, vi pp.). The book contains six concise and thorough chapters dealing with China's relations with the powers as a whole from 1842 to 1929, China's specific relations with the United States, Great Britain, Japan, and Soviet Presidents. Soviet Russia; the story of Sino-Soviet-Japanese relations in Manchuria; Japan's relations with Russia and the United States; the problems of the Australians, and the various agreements for preserving peace in the Pacific area, from the Washington Conference to the Pact of Paris. About one-third the book is devoted to a handy appendix, containing documents relating to the subjects under considera-tion. The more important documents relate to the Kuomintang, Chinese treaty revision, the Nanking Incident of 1927, tariff autonomy, extraterritoriality, Japanese and Russian interests and activities in Manchuria, and the treaty agree-ments. "Giving only enough historical background to make existing conditions understandable, the volume," says Dr. Blakeslee in his Introduction, "attempts to set forth the factors which are today most important in the relations of the leading countries: the treaties which bind them, their announced aims and policies, their agreements for common action, their conflicts of interest, and the issues remaining to be solved." The book easily achieves the goal set for it by its distinguished author.-L.

In an unusually well-documented volume of 420 pages on The First Moroccan Crisis, 1904-1906 (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1930), Mr. Eugene N. Anderson has given a life-like portrayal of the type of diplomacy that "laid open the road to Armageddon." Relying chiefly upon Die Grosse Politik, the British Documents on the Origins of the War, and the Livres jounes dealing with Moroccan affairs from 1901-1906, Mr. Anderson has woven an interesting narrative of the shaping up of the European alignments from 1898 to 1904, of the increasing rivalry between France and Germany, of which the Moroccan dispute was only one expressive phase, of the shifting tactics and policies of Russia and England, and of the soreness of the wound left by the Algeciras Conference of 1906. For a decade and a half the "Moroccan problem was the political barometer of Europe," and it rose and fell with terrifying suddenness and rapidity. Although the story of the Moroccan pawn has been told many times before, in such works, for example, as Stuart's French Foreign Policy and Tardieu's Algeciras Conference, the appearance of nu-

merous hitherto undisclosed documents has made a fresh study essential. Mr. Anderson has summed up the story in highly estimable fashion.-L.

The Columbia University Press has just published A Bibliography of English Literature and History (25 cents), prepared, with a syllabus for a co-ordinated course, by J. B. Brebner and Emery Neff. It should be of interest to teachers of English history and English literature because it represents the experience of the departments of English and History in Columbia College in their collaborative course, "Historical Bases of English Literature." The pamphlet contains an introductory discussion of the nature of the course and the book recommendations, a topical and chronological list of monographs in history, and a critical list of monographs on English literature, partly topical and partly chronological. It concludes with a detailed syllabus suitable for the conduct of such a course where sections are small enough to permit the discussion method.

In Economic Democracy, America's Answer to Socialism and Communism (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929. xxviii, 151 pp.), Robert S. Brookings, founder of the Brookings Institution in Washington, D. C., presents a series of articles in which he discusses co-operation versus competition, big business and the public, trade relations and agriculture, overproduction, socializing the soulless corporation, industrial management, and education for political leadership. Nearly all the articles have appeared elsewhere prior to the publication of the present volume. tain considerable intellectual food, but the serious reader will scarcely agree that they contain all the medicine needed by our illy functioning capitalistic system.

Students of social and intellectual history, as well as every lover of early American literature, will welcome Paul H. Musser's James Nelson Barker, 1784-1858, With a Re-print of His Comedy, Tears, and Smiles (University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1929. 230 pp.). Brought up a social and political democrat, Barker was a man of many talents. His ardent democracy made him a life-long altruist, a hater of control by the few, and a booster for those well down the social-economic ladder. Much of his time and energy were absorbed by politics and public office, yet he wrote some ten plays, as well as prologues, for fellow dramatists, history, biography, patriotic songs, controversial articles, orations, and miscellaneous prose. Those who read this scholarly biography will agree with Professor Musser that in public affairs, private life, literary production, and general traits Barker was the product of the finest forces of the early republic.

Correspondence

EDITOR, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

A venture of high significance and importance in inter-A venture of lings significance and importance in international relations is being realized this coming February. Latin-America has been, through the last years, of increasing interest and concern. Are we in the United States going to be intelligent on questions of vital economic, educational, and international import? The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin-America, after a year's study of this question, is now announcing the First Annual Session of the Seminar in the Caribbean.

The members of the Seminar will sail from New York on the S. S. "Caledonia," February 14, 1931. Visits will be made to San Juan, Puerto Rico; Santo Domingo; Colon, Visits will Canal Zone; Kingston, Jamaica; Port-au-Prince, Haiti; and They will return to New York on March Havana, Cuba. 4th.

We have enlisted a group of able lecturers and leaders of round-table discussions-Dr. Ernest Gruening, Dr. E. C. Lindeman, Dr. Leland Jenks, Dr. Samuel Guy Inman, Mr. Charles Thomson, and Mr. Carleton Beals. Distinguished Latin-Americans, as Dr. Fernando Ortiz of Cuba and Dr. Moises Saenz of Mexico, are expected to participate in some of the sessions.

Seminar programs are being arranged in San Juan, Santo Domingo, Port-au-Prince, and Cuba. There will be conferences with the leaders of the countries visited, and visits to educational institutions, social work agencies, etc.

The Seminar in the Caribbean is being established by the committee, which has held the Seminar in Mexico annually since 1926. Over four hundred men and women have participated in the sessions in Mexico.

Applications for membership and requests for further information should be addressed to Hubert C. Herring, The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin-America, 112 East Nineteenth Street, New York City.

EDITOR, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

I should like to know of a good book or literature on "Home Room Activities in the Junior High School" (including the tenth grade). Can you furnish such informa-R. M. L.

Worcester, Pa.

Answer: A. S. Barnes and Co., of New York, publish a series of volumes called the "Extra-Curricular Library," in which are several volumes on home room activities, dealing with such topics as "Home Room Organization and Activities," "School Club Practices," "Home Room Projects," and "The Organization and Administration of Extra-Curricular Activities."

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Sept. 27, to Oct. 25, 1930

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D. AMERICAN HISTORY

Bogart, Ernest L. Economic history of the American peo-

ple. N. Y.: Longmans. 809 pp. \$3.50. Brewer, William H. Up and down California in 1860-64. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 631 pp. \$6.00.

Buck, Franklin A. A Yankee trader in the Gold Rush. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 302 pp. \$3.50. Chapman, Henry S. The story of the American colonies. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 238 pp. (2 p. bibl.). 92

Condict, Jemima. Jemima Condict [diary; Essex Co., N. J.; Revolutionary War]. Newark, N. J.: Carteret Book Club. 73 pp. \$7.50.

Eddy, George S. A work-book of the printing house of Benjamin Franklin and David Hall, 1759-1766. N. Y.:

N. Y. Public Library. 17 pp. Geoffrey, Theodate. Suckanesset [history of Falmouth, Mass.]. Falmouth, Mass.: Dorothy G. Wayman. 168 pp. \$2.50.

Pp. 493.04.

Green, Fletcher M. Constitutional development in the South Atlantic States, 1776-1860. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. Press. 342 pp. (20 p. bibl.). \$3.00.

Haeberlin, H., and Gunther, Erna. The Indians of Puget Sound. Seattle: Univ. of Wash. Press. 83 pp. (2 p. bibl.).

bibl.). \$1.00.

Hulbert, Archer B. Soil; its influence on the history of the United States, with special reference to migration [etc.]. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 237 pp. \$2.50.

Johnson, Green G. Social history of the Sea Islands [Georgia and South Carolina]. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. Press. 245 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$3.00.

Johnson, Willis F. The national flag; a history. Boston:

Houghton Mifflin. 123 pp. \$2.00.

Laughlin, Sceva B. Missouri politics during the Civil War. Salem, Ore.: Author, 1705 State Street. 122 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$1.00.

McClintock, Walter. The tragedy of the Blackfoot. Los Angeles: Southwest Museum. 53 pp.

McFee, Inez N. C. Famous events in American history [for children]. N. Y.: Crowell. 308 pp. \$2.00.

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- Player, Cyril A. The barons of the Virginia rivers. Detroit: Detroit News, 615 Lafayette Blvd. 124 pp.
 Rugg, H., and Mendenhall, J. E. Pupils' work book to
 accompany a history of American civilization. Boston:
 Ginn & Co. 73 pp. 40 cents.
 Woodburn, J. A., and Moran, T. F. Beginner's history of
- odburn, J. A., and Moran, T. F. Beginner's history of the United States, revised edition. N. Y.: Longmans. 511 pp. \$1.20.

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- human progress]. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 463 pp. \$3,50.
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- Murray, Margaret A. Egyptian sculpture. N. Y.: Scrib-ner. 233 pp. \$5.00.

 Torrey, Charles C. Pseudo-Ezekiel and the original prophecy. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 119 pp. \$2.00.
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- Bushnell, Nelson S. The historical background of English literature. N. Y.: Holt. 369 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$2.00. Davis, W. S. Life in Elizabethan days. N. Y.: Harper.
- Davis, W. S. 2316 388 pp. \$3.50. Palmer, R. Liddesdale. English monasteries in the Mid-dle Ages. N. Y.: Richard R. Smith. 247 pp. (3 p.

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- Dugdale, E. T. S., editor. German diplomatic documents, 1870-1914. Vol. III. The growing antagonism, 1898-1910. N. Y.: Harper. 463 pp. \$7.50.
- Chapman, Henry S. Stories of our European forefathers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 198 pp. (2 p. bibl.). 84 cents.
- Feis, Herbert. Europe the world's banker, 1870-1914. New
- Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 492 pp. \$5.00. fan, Robert G. D., editor. Select documents of European history, 800-1492. N. Y.: Holt. 220 pp. (2 p. Laffan, Robert G. D., editor. bibl.). \$1.75.
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MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Coulton, George G. The Black Death; a study of the 14th century plague. N. Y.: Cape and Smith. 120 pp. 60

MISCELLANEOUS

- Logasa, Hannah, compiler. Historical fiction and other reading references for history classes in junior and senior high schools. Phila.: McKinley Pub. Co. 131 pp. \$1.00.
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 Saunders, Kenneth J. Buddhism. N. Y.: Cape & Smith.
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 125 pp. (3 p. bibl.). 60 cents.
 Seligman, E. R. A., and Johnson, A. S., editors. Encyclopedia of the Social Science; vol. 2, Alliance—Brigandage. N. Y.: Macmillan. 722 pp. \$7.50.
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- phy]. N. Y.: Century Co. 245 pp. \$2.00. Loth, David G. Royal Charles, ruler and rake [Charles II of England]. N. Y.: Brentano's. 343 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
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- Dutton. 313 pp. \$3.50. Reed, Louis S. The labor philosophy of Samuel Gompers. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 190 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$3.00.
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- pp. \$3.00.
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- Forman, Samuel E. Government in Ohio. N. Y.: Century Co. 60 pp. 35 cents.
- Frankfurter, Felix. The public and its government. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 170 pp. \$2.00.
- Green, Harry J. A study of the legislature of the State of Maryland....sessions of 1927 and 1929. Balto.: Johns
- Hopkins Press. 110 pp. Hattersley, Alan F. A short history of democracy. N. Y.: Macmillan. 282 pp. \$2.50.

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- Harper. 295 pp. \$3.00. Mallory, Walter H. Political hand-book of the World, 1930. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 198 pp. \$2.50.
- Pierce, Bessie L. Civic attitudes in American school text-books. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. Press. 313 pp. (25 p. \$3.00. bibl.).
- Wright, Quincy. Mandates under the League of Nations. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. Press. 726 pp. \$6.00.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

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Some Recent Works on the Teaching of History. J. A.

White (History, October).

The Outlook of Greek Culture upon Judaism. Isaac Herzog (Hibbert Journal, October)

Maritime Powers in the Eighteenth Century. Sir Richard Lodge (History, October).

The Wooden Horse. W. F. J. Knight (Classical Philology, October).

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The French Revolution and the Russian. Emil Ludwig (Nineteenth Century, October).

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Modern Governments in Graphic Form. E. D. Graper and J. C. Charlesworth (Scholastica, November). II. The government of Great Britain.

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The Borough Community in England. James Tait (English Historical Review, October).

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Quarterly, October).

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The Supply Service of the New Mexican Missions in the Seventeenth Century, III. F. V. Scholes (New Mexico Historical Review, October).

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